DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 324 504 CE 056 061

AUTHOR	Ouane, Adama
TITLE	Handbook on Learning Strategies for Post-Literacy and Continuing Education. Outcomes of an International Research Project of the Unesco Institute for Education Organized in Co-operation with the German Commission for Unesco, Bonn. UIE Studies on Post-Literacy and Continuing Education 7.
INSTITUTION	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, Hamburg (West Germany). Inst. for Education.
REPORT NO	ISBN-92-820-1053-8
PUB DATE	89
NOTE	447p.; For related documents, see CE 056 055-060.
PUB TYPE	Reports - Research/Technical (143)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC18 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Adult Education; *Adult Literacy; *Continuing Education; Correspondence Study; *Distance Education; *Educational Media; Folk Culture; Foreign Countries; Instructional Materials; *Learning Strategies; Libraries; Lifelong Learning; *Literacy Education; *News Media; Rural Areas; Vocational Education
IDENTIFIERS	Study Circles

ABSTRACT

This document contains three parts: part 1 provides the framework of post-literacy; part 2 describes putting the learning strategies into action; and part 3 provides conclusions. In part 1, post-literacy is defined and learning strategies for post-literacy and continuing education are identified. In part 2, the following learning strategies are discussed: (1) using printed media, such as textbooks, supplementary reading materials, extension literature, and the rural or community press; (2) the use of radio, TV, and audiovisual media; (3) using distance education and correspondence courses; (4) rural libraries, mobile exhibitions, and museums; (5) traditional folk media and games; (6) local study and action groups; and (7) out-of-school programs, award-bearing schemes, institutions parallel to the school system, and other general and vocational nonformal courses. Part 3 includes two examples of the integrated use of learning strategies: Action for Popular Culture programs in Colombia and Village Continuing Education Centers in India. References and reading lists are included in each part. A glossary of terms and a listing of acronyms and abbreviations is provided. (CML)

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HANDBOOK ON LEARNING STRATEGIES FOR POST-LITERACY AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

Adama Ouane

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Feldbrunnenstrasse 58
D-2000 Hamburg 13
Federal Republic of Germany

ISBN 92 820 1053 8

Printed by
Repro Lüdke · D-2000 Hamburg 54 · Kieler Str. 555

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Foreword

Since 1972, the Unesco Institute for Education (UIE) has been conducting research on the concept of lifelong education and its practical implications for educational reforms and development. One of the important areas of application of the principles of lifelong education in developing countries is the post-literacy and continuing education of neoliterates, who may lapse back into illiteracy if appropriate learning strategies are not employed to provide opportunities for them to continue learning - not only for the purpose of *retaining literacy* skills but also *to acquire an adequate level of basic education for development.*

Developing countries face a complex and massive problem of illiteracy, which is particularly prevalent in the poverty-stricken sections of peoples. It has been estimated that there are about 900 million illiterate adults (over the age of 15) in the world at present. According to Unesco statistics, it is clear that while the percentage of illiterates among the world population is decreasing, in absolute terms their number is gradually increasing. In effect, such a paradoxical situation amounts to a huge wastage of human potential and the consequent persistence of poverty, a slower pace of development, and increasing social inequality. Conscious of the vexed and vicious problem, the developing countries are already trying hard to eradicate illiteracy and quite a number of them have launched massive projects both for adults and for out-of-school children.

It has, however, been observed that those who acquire literacy through such programmes have great difficulty retaining it, and some of them relapse into illiteracy. The rate of relapse is quite substantial and has become a formidable problem. The reversal occurs not only in the case of adults who acquire literacy through short-duration nonformal programmes, but also in the case of children who drop out of the formal school system prematurely after acquiring just temporary literacy. It is therefore urgently necessary to work out ways and means of arresting this phenomenon of reversal by developing basic post-literacy programmes and services. It has been observed that the typical single-shot educational programmes of literacy, which are often part-time or of short duration by necessity are basically introductory in nature, and if the intended objectives of socio-economic development and improvement of the quality of life of the poor and backward populations are to be adequately served, it is essential that the initial literacy programmes are systematically followed up by post-literacy and continuing education for which appropriate learning strategies should be adopted. These strategies should aim at:

i *retention* and stabilization of literacy skills,
ii *continuation* of learning beyond just literacy skills in order to acquire adequate basic education, and
iii linking of post-literacy and continuing education with the larger processes of personal, social and vocational development through appropriate use and *application* of the learning already acquired.

The Unesco Institute for Education (UIE), since 1980, has carried out extensive research in the field of Post-Literacy (PL) and Continuing Education (CE) for neo-literate adults and out-of-school children. Concrete field experiences from 22 countries in Africa, Asia, the Arab States and Latin America and the Caribbean have been studied. This research was preceded by a period of intensive analysis. A series of regional and international workshops were organized, where the findings were thrown open for discussion and were disseminated to some 300 key personnel working at national level in about 100 developing countries in designing and implementing national programmes.

It may be added that while the first phase of UIE's research and research-based training project on PL and CE focused on the development of Learning Strategies (LS), the second phase, initiated in 1987, deals with several additional issues in a comprehensive manner. It places emphasis on the qualitative aspects of the content of general and vocational learning, evaluation procedures and techniques, and the modalities of training middle-level and grassroots personnel within the broad framework of lifelong education.

In the light of this development in the Institute's programme, it has been proposed that the outcomes of the continuing research and related activities on the issues referred to above should be brought out as a set of handbooks dealing chiefly with:

a) The Development of Learning Strategies;
b) The Quality and Relevance of Curricula for Post-Literacy and Continuing Education;
c) The Training of Literacy and Post-Literacy Personnel Working at the Middle and Grassroots Levels;
d) The Evaluation of Learning Outcomes and their

Impact on Development.

The present handbook is the first in the intended set.

It may be pointed out that these handbooks do not set out to provide a comprehensive summary of the entire work done in the areas covered, nor are they an encyclopedia of recipes likely to lead to successful programmes.

- They are simply a collection of guidelines, based on studies, and are intended to serve as a source of ideas for drawing up national programmes.
- They are a series outlining certain principles based on facts and insights regarding concepts such as Learning Strategies, Curriculum/Content, Evaluation and Training which may help field workers to use available material more creatively.
- Finally, they are intended to lead to the development of a more fruitful search for innovative ideas that can serve as a source of ideas for drawing up national programmes and designing new ones in relation to literacy, post-literacy and the basic level of education.

This handbook is based on the experiences of a large number of researchers and field workers. As stated earlier, 22 case studies have been conducted and written up, very often by teams of authors. The ideas and experiences which they contain have been extensively quoted and contrasted. It is not possible to name all the authors, but their valuable studies are cited under "References" and "Further Reading". We are grateful to them and to their respective organizations and institutions, which extended active co-operation to UIE throughout the project. We also received valuable co-operation and guidance from Unesco Headquarters and Regional Offices.

Mr Richard Banibensu, from the Institute of Adult Education, University of Ghana, carried out a horizontal analysis of selected Learning Strategies during a three-month consultancy at UIE. This significant input has been partly integrated in this handbook, and we are thankful to him for the preliminary work he did for the Institute. Several other colleagues from the field have contributed comments. I wish to mention in particular Professor Abdel Fatah Galal, former Director of ASFEC and presently Director, Institute of Education, University of Cairo, Egypt. Similarly, Ms Mercy Abreu de Armengol from the National Department of Adult Education, Ministry of Education, Colombia read the manuscript critically and made very appropriate suggestions regarding the need to include the perspective of "popular education", which is a predominant movement in Latin America. She also made very pertinent remarks on selected learning strategies. Mr Ramesh Thanvi, Director of the Rajasthan State Resource Centre, India, assisted in selecting the illustrations.

We extend our warmest gratitude to the Government of the Federal Republic of Germany, which is providing a generous extra-budgetary grant to support the overall Post-Literacy Project through the German Commission for Unesco (DUK), Bonn. The Federal German Government has shown great interest in this handbook and has provided a financial grant for UIE to produce this publication as a part of the larger project on Post-Literacy and Continuing Education. The professional advice, generous assistance, and warm encouragement of both the Government and DUK are greatly appreciated. Dr Hans Meinel, Secretary-General of the DUK and Dr Traugott Schöfthaler, Education Secretary in the same Commission, took personal interest in this endeavour and provided active support and help in many ways. Dr. Hans-Wolf Rissom of Unesco, who had earlier worked as Education Secretary in this Commission, also provided similar support and help. We are deeply indebted to them for supporting this important project.

My particular thanks are due to my colleague at UIE, Dr Adama Ouane, who has prepared this handbook, both writing much new material and integrating the experiences of others. Ms Sarah Williams edited the first draft of the manuscript, with great attention to detail and lucidity. Mr Peter Sutton of UIE undertook the final editorial and production work, making a number of suggestions for the improvement of the content. Ms Ursula Giere, head of the UIE Documentation Centre, gave assistance especially in the recommendation of further reading.

This handbook, being the first in the proposed set, is a sort of "field test" version, and indications as to how to make this publication more relevant to the concerns of personnel working at the middle and grassroots levels will be welcomed.

Ravindra H Dave
Director
Unesco Institute for Education

Introduction

A large number of developing countries have recently launched massive programmes of adult literacy on a national scale, complementary to efforts towards implementing the universalization of primary education for children of school-going age. It has, however, been observed that those neo-literate adults who acquire literacy through such programmes have great difficulty in retaining it, and some of them lapse back into illiteracy if timely follow-up measures are not taken. The same phenomenon of reversal has also been observed in the case of children who drop out of the formal school system prematurely.

A number of evaluation studies conducted on the impact of literacy corroborate the observations given above. According to a survey conducted by the Tata Institute of Social Science, Bombay (*India*), nearly 40 % of those who have completed the basic literacy programme relapsed into illiteracy after a period of one year in the absence of suitable neo-literate reading material:

> A study of the retention rate, conducted by the Council of Social Development, New Delhi in 1970, came to the conclusion that the neo-literates emerging from adult lit-

> eracy programmes with Grades I and II literacy lost 85 % literacy and those with Grade III literacy, 55 %. Students with 4+ years of schooling suffered a loss of 29 % whereas those with 3 or less years of schooling lost 81 %. According to a survey conducted in Thailand, 33 % of people who completed primary education relapsed into illiteracy. The situation changed dramatically in 1983, however, when attractive neo-literate learning materials were provided, reducing the rate of relapse to only 18.33 %.[1]

The reasons for this may be varied and numerous. The aim of this handbook is to examine and give illustrative details of the development and implementation of appropriate **Learning Strategies** (LS) aimed at preventing and halting a reversal of the spread of literacy. The handbook will focus especially on those aspects of LS which can be controlled by practitioners at the middle and grassroots level.

The practitioner is a generic term used here to cover those literacy and post-literacy functionaries carrying out practical work at learning centres, in institutions or other similar organizations. Practitioners include instructors (teachers, literacy workers, volunteers, animators, facilitators, local coordinators) and supervisors (coordinators). Supervisors and coordinators operate at the middle level, but definitions of the other terms involved is not clear cut. One can simply observe that some are derived from the classical pedagogical sciences (teachers, instructors, supervisors) and are self-explanatory, whilst the terms animators, facilitators and volunteers have been borrowed from social pedagogy and are used to reflect the change of function and profile of these workers. Generally facilitators tend to be more closely related to the teaching/learning process, whilst animators focus on sociocultural interaction apart from the teaching/learning process.

The following chart, derived from the monitoring system of literacy in India, gives an illustration of the different categories of personnel involved:

LEVEL	DESIGNATION	FUNCTION
Grassroots	Instructor	- in charge of an Adult Education Centre with 30 learners for a programme of eight months' basic literacy and four months' post-literacy as a continuous activity
	Supervisor	- responsible for the supervision of 30 Adult Education Centres
Middle	Project Officer	- responsible for implementation of an Adult Education Project with 100 to 300 A.E. Centres
National/ Central	State Director Adult Education	- responsible for overseeing the implementation of the adult education programme for a state/union territory.

This handbook is intended for practitioners in Post-Literacy (PL) and Continuing Education (CE) programmes. More specifically, it is meant for those personnel at the middle and grassroots level who actually come into contact with neo-literate learning. It is for those who have been using these and similar LS to help neo-literates make greater use of their newly acquired literacy skills. It is also for personnel who might welcome new ideas as a source of inspiration, enabling them to produce a richer PL or CE programme, which in turn will be more effective in helping the neo-literate.

Generally speaking, LS are activities that learners and practitioners are engaged in during a learning episode, with the specific goal of increasing knowledge and bringing about change. Since LS are goal-specific, it follows that they must be planned with a clear purpose in mind and must be carried out according to intention.

In this handbook the term is used with a specific meaning and focus:

> The term "Learning Strategy" (LS) is often used to refer to the pattern of actions of an individual who, in the course of his learning, makes good use of his learning skills and the various resources available to him (to achieve certain learning objectives). A strategy implies objectives and options, which in turn have implications for action. Where an individual learner is concerned, these implications are at the individual level. In this project, however, "Learning Strategy" is not used to refer to a pattern of action at the level of the individual neo-literate learner only. Where the individual learner is concerned, even a newspaper or a book constitutes a resource for learning. But at a national level, in the majority of countries where the study was conducted, a choice may have to be made between rural newspapers, radio programmes, libraries, etc. The selection of a rural newspaper at national level has broad implications and in many cases may even be said to largely determine the "Learning Strategy" at the level of the individual learner. Therefore, at the level of national decision making, opting for a newspaper, a library, supplementary readers, etc., may be regarded as crucial learning strategies for programmes concerning the post-literacy and continuing education of neo-literates...

In the sense in which LS is used in this handbook, the reference is not to an individual learner but to whole classes of learners.[2]

All the procedures, methods, techniques, activities and structures designed and set up to provide and sustain PL learning constitute LS.

From the extensive research carried out in this field by UIE a number of LS were identified, analysed and grouped into 12 major categories:

1. newspapers, wallpapers, posters and magazines for neo-literates;
2. textual materials prepared for post-literacy studies;
3. supplementary reading materials;
4. extension literature produced by development agencies such as health departments, agricultural extension services, etc.;
5. radio, TV, video, films, etc. (New Media);
6. correspondence courses;
7. libraries for new readers, mobile exhibitions and museums;
8. out-of-school and award-bearing programmes parallel to the school system, and other nonformal courses of a vocational and general character;
9. occasional programmes based on special needs and interests;
10. local study and action groups;
11. traditional and folk media; and
12. sports, games and physical culture.

Practitioners are encouraged to adopt as many of the 12 strategies as they find relevant to their local situations and needs. They are also invited to try out some of those which they might not have used in the past or with which they are not already familiar. This may open up new vistas in their work with neo-literates, which in turn may generate new ideas for the benefit of everyone involved. Practitioners should feel free to experiment and suggest new ideas, new insights and new questions, so that in exploring these, we may together improve the quality of PL/CE and achieve a higher level of learning.

Besides the **Foreword** and an **Introduction**, the handbook is divided into **three main parts**.

This **Introduction** provides general contextual and background information about the research carried out by UIE, its findings and the need for dissemination through a series of handbooks aimed at middle and grassroots literacy personnel. The specific objectives, functions, structure and use of the present handbook are outlined.

The **First Part**, which gives the conceptual and theoretical framework, is composed of two chapters. **Chapter 1** introduces the overall objective and major components of PL and CE. A cursory summary of the Lifelong Education Framework is given, emphasizing its role as the guiding and organizing principle for the successful reform and implementation of PL and CE programmes within the **education continuum.**

Chapter 2 presents the LS with the context of the learner's daily life and environment, highlighting the different types, forms and characteristics and showing possible combinations. Some underlying preconditions and supportive structures are briefly mentioned.

The **Second Part** focuses on the 12 LS which are grouped into seven major categories. Each category is dealt with in a separate chapter. The general pattern adopted is to present each LS with attention to policy, content, organizational facilities, evaluation procedures and main characteristics. A list of problems is given and innovative approaches to their solutions are brought forward.

The implementation of the strategies is then discussed, one at a time, together with relevant details. To make this more meaningful, implementation is illustrated with significant field experiences. The idea is to bring together the experiences gathered from selected countries and to use them as models which may strengthen the programme being currently implemented by the practitioners. This is also meant, as stated earlier, to engage practitioners in critical thinking about the variety of approaches to implementation of an activity, which may eventually lead them to develop new insights into what they have already been doing.

Each LS concludes with a list of references and further reading.

The Third Part contains attempts to put the LS into their real and total perspective. In order to illustrate the indivisible nature of the programmes served by the LS, two examples of the use of combined LS are given by way of conclusion. This is to convince the practitioners that LS are the means to achieve the programme objectives, the efficiency of which can be achieved, maintained and improved only through the multi-purpose use of a large number of LS. Thus, the learning opportunities are multiplied and the chance of achieving programme objectives is substantially increased.

A short Glossary of terms commonly used in PL, CE and Lifelong Education is given in an Annex, together with a list of **Abbreviations** and **Acronyms**.

This handbook is to serve purely as a guidebook. It is not a collection of implementation strategies and methods which can be put directly into practice but merely gives examples of how different countries and different adult educators from different regions have tried to cope as effectively as possible with the PL challenges facing them.

These experiences are simply meant to help the practitioners to become more creative in their implementation programmes, to make them feel free to try innovations in the field, and to encourage them to make use of their local resources to the full, in order to cope with the problems and challenges posed by PL in their community.

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1. *Workshop on Production, Publication, Distribution and Marketing of Reading Materials for Continuing Education of Neo-Literates and School Drop-Outs, 9-11 February, 1988. A Report.* New Delhi: National Book Trust and Directorate of Adult Education, pp. 44-45.

2. Dave, R.H., Ouane, A. and Perera, D.A. *Learning Strategies for Post-Literacy and Continuing Education: A Cross-National Perspective.* Second Edition. Hamburg: Unesco Institute for Education, 1988, pp. 39-41.

Part I

The Framework of Post-Literacy

Chapter 1

Defining Post-Literacy

Universally accepted definitions of Literacy, PL and CE are only needed as operational terms so that the skills and competencies acquired can be measured uniformly and cross-national comparison can be carried out.

National and local definitions are at present situation-specific and taken from parameters based on a number of criteria (used individually or combined in different ways) such as values, objectives, functions, methods, levels and contents of skills required, etc. Despite the variety and vagueness of definitions of "literacy" and the gap existing between broad concepts of literacy and operational definitions, it is generally admitted that there are some 900 million illiterates in the world. This figure is composed of a core of illiterate young people and adults and a fluctuating number of out-of-school children, school drop-outs and neo-literates who have relapsed back into illiteracy. Large-scale literacy programmes have been launched to address the core illiterates. These campaigns can soon become continually cyclic if appropriate measures are not taken to stop the phenomenon of reversal which occurs in 30 to 40 per cent of neo-literates.

Hence, there is a need for systematic post-literacy programmes. The level, nature and quality of the skills and competencies to be acquired, the behavioural changes going beyond mere acquisition of the "3 Rs" and the need to take the local context into consideration and change various aspects of it if necessary - these are the main criteria on which the concepts of PL and CE are based.

Objective of PL and CE

The programmes of PL and CE referred to in this handbook are conceived in the broad perspective of lifelong education, which may be defined as:

> a comprehensive concept which includes formal, nonformal and informal learning extended throughout the lifespan of an individual to attain the fullest possible development in personal, social and professional life. It seeks to view education in its totality and includes learning that occurs at home, school, community, and workplace and through mass media and other situations and structures for acquiring and enhancing enlightenment.[1]

The objective of PL and CE then is to ensure that neo-literates should be enabled to improve their quality of life and to develop to their fullest potential personally, socially and professionally.

Purpose of PL

Post-literacy is a segment along the continuum of lifelong education which plays a pivotal role in whether the learner will be able to continue learning and attain independence, or will relapse into illiteracy. The nature and scope of the segment of the continuum called post-literacy depends on the characteristics of the other components of this continuum, namely pre-literacy and literacy on the one hand, and continuing education, through other higher or subsequent stages, on the other. The interconnections between these elements of lifelong education are many and varied, and are based on several factors, including national policy, educational history and tradition, linguistic configuration, cultural and social norms and the national vision of the future. The objectives, content and levels of these stages vary considerably between countries and sometimes even between programmes. This section attempts to set out clearly what PL involves and the important links it has with Literacy and Continuing Education within the framework of Lifelong Education.

Definition of PL

Post-literacy itself has been defined as:

> ... an integrating learning process to assist literates to **retain,** improve and **apply** their basic knowledge, attitudes and skills for the satisfaction of their needs, and to permit them to **continue** education through a self-directed process for the improvement of their quality of life (personal and societal).[2]

This definition emphasizes some important overlapping elements in PL, which we may now amplify. These elements are:

- the **retention** and stabilization of the literacy skills acquired;
- the **continuation** of learning beyond institutional structures;
- the **application** and improvement of previously acquired skills;
- the context in which the skills are to be applied (the family, the workplace, community organizations and the larger national society);
- the autonomy of the learners as individuals and organized groups (i.e. emphasis on self-directed learning);
- the ultimate goal to be attained through the application of this learning, namely, criticism and improvement of aspects of life within personal, social, cultural and vocational spheres;
- the integrative nature of the process (i.e. it requires the coordinated use of reading, writing and computing abilities and goes beyond these to include related skills such as:
  - taking part in discussions;
  - leading group meetings;
  - using a library;
  - searching for information;
  - using extension services;
  - undertaking new responsibilities as members of community organizations).

The purpose of PL then is based on the premise that since many who acquire basic literacy in the formal system or in a nonformal setting are known to have become illiterate after some time, not only due to the attrition of skills acquired, but through the failure to acquire new skills needed in a rapidly changing world, preventative measures must be taken. This is where the importance of PL and CE becomes obvious.

A Warning

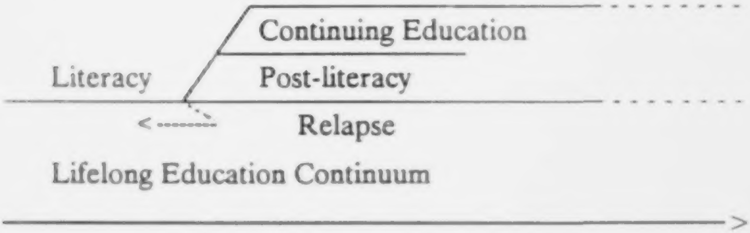
We must emphasize, at this point, that ANY LITERACY PROGRAMME PLANNED WITHOUT A CORRESPONDING PLAN FOR POST-LITERACY IS CERTAIN TO BE AN EXERCISE IN FUTILITY! It is abundantly clear that in most countries, massive campaigns are mounted for literacy and functional programmes with no plan whatsoever made in advance for post-literacy programmes. PL programmes incidentally emerge as ad hoc measures, usually designed merely to retain participants in an existing programme. PL needs to be well planned in advance in its own right, with as much attention paid to its implementation as is paid to initial literacy campaigns.

With such broadly conceived goals for PL programmes, it becomes imperative that PL programmes need to utilize formal, nonformal and even informal modes, resources and arrangements for learning.

The Relationship between PL and Literacy

Literacy tends to be restricted by some practitioners to the acquisition of reading, writing and computational skills. However, most countries rightly regard literacy as just one stage in a continuum. Literacy is only the first step for the neo-literate. This concept emerges clearly from policy statements and from case studies carried out by UIE and other agencies and researchers. In Vietnam, for instance, it is referred to as "the first rung of the cultural ladder". In Venezuela, adult literacy work is referred to as "adult primary education" leading to "adult secondary education" and beyond. The same elements are identified in China, where reference is made to "spare-time primary schools, spare-time secondary schools, leading all the way to spare-time universities".

These examples confirm not only the direct relationship between Literacy and PL but do more, by showing that both Literacy and PL are linked and that they both merely constitute stages in the education **continuum.** PL happens to be only one important stage in this continuum. PL and CE are inseparable, making literacy, PL and CE a part of the lifelong education continuum. Their relationship is presented in the diagram below:



The Stage of PL in CE

As explained above, CE is part of a continuum, itself containing a segment constituting the stage of PL. This stage varies in standard and complexity from one country to another. Besides the retention of skills and continuation of learning, PL is also characterized by:

1. the goal of skills application for development, leading to a better quality of life;
2. the possibility of acquiring a self-directed approach to learning, using a variety of resources, including material developed specifically for independent learning;
3. the provision of opportunities for re-entry into the formal system of education or into courses equivalent to some of those in the formal system;
4. the creation of a literate environment favouring the use of written communication;
5. community participation in the identification, definition and implementation of their own educational and development programmes.

We see then, that the PL stage becomes crucial to the neo-literate because it is only this that introduces him to certain dimensions which are vital for independent learning. The PL stage:

a. enables the neo-literate learner to make use of information on his own in various forms, such as newspapers, brochures, leaflets, books and other available reading material of reasonable complexity;

b. opens up opportunities for the neo-literate to gain a deeper awareness of his environment, through a more meaningful and independent use of reading material and through a more complex use of language: because of this, the neo-literate needs to be introduced to a wide variety of possible areas in which he can use his skills of reading and can be encouraged to write;

c. allows the neo-literate to become aware of the need to continue to develop his talents and thereby make a greater contribution to his family, his community and to society as a whole. It is a stage at which he must feel more independent and fully conscious of his direct involvement in shaping his own destiny and thereby raising the quality of life for himself and also for those with whom he comes into contact.

It is clear that these are areas in which one cannot make substantial progress overnight. What is even more important is that, because this stage can become so complex, unless the neo-literate gets the guidance he needs, some of the dimensions of PL will elude him completely.

Indeed, some who should be assisted to make maximum use of this stage are simply kept marking time, repeating the initial literacy stage which should only have been a starter.

The practitioner cannot take any neo-literate through these dimensions on his own. He should use PL as a tool to enable the neo-literate himself to strive towards this greater independence as a learner and a citizen.

It is a difficult task which, as a matter of necessity, needs to be well planned if the desired goal is to be achieved. The learning experiences of neo-literates can become more manageable through the use of the 12 learning strategies mentioned earlier. In the rest of this handbook, these 12 strategies are presented and discussed, so as to give the practitioner the opportunity of benefiting from what has been done in other countries.

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Chapter 2

Learning Strategies for Post-Literacy and Continuing Education

As indicated in the preceding chapter, the stage of PL remains a crucial link in the educational continuum for the neo-literate. It is this stage that leads him to the stage where he can independently begin to explore his world through the avenue of literacy. The world-wide endeavour to support post-literacy implies a set of measures of a methodological, institutional, managerial and motivational nature, all of which must be adequately and appropriately carried out if the programmes are to be successful. The sets of approaches, methods, activities, programmes and structures which constitute LS involve both communication and participation, and equip the learner with skills and abilities which can be used for development and change. It is therefore imperative to guide the neo-literate along the right lines and to provide continual encouragement - using **all available strategies** that will enhance his learning endeavours.

The focus of this handbook is to introduce the practitioner at the grassroots and middle level to the learning strategies which have been identified in the UIE study and other sources. These learning strategies are considered to be a critical element in leading the neo-literate to his ultimate goal - developing those attitudes and skills that will improve not only his own quality of life but that of his family, his community and the society in which he lives.

In order to optimize the implementation of LS, it is important to have a cursory view of existing **types and forms**, to underline their **overall** characteristics, and to draw attention to crucial **supportive structures and principles**.

The fullest use of the environment, recourse to varied means of communication, the establishment of a network of supportive structures and the integration of learning objectives are the main features underlying the conceptualization and implementation of LS. It is worth repeating the enumeration of the learning strategies which have been identified through UIE's studies of experiences:

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1. newspapers, wall-newspapers, and magazines for neo-literates;
2. textual materials prepared for post-literacy studies;
3. supplementary reading materials;
4. extension literature produced by development agencies such as health departments, agricultural extension services, etc.;
5. libraries for new readers, mobile exhibitions and museums;
6. out-of-school and award-bearing schemes running parallel to the school system, and other nonformal courses of a vocational and general character;
7. occasional programmes based on special needs and interests;

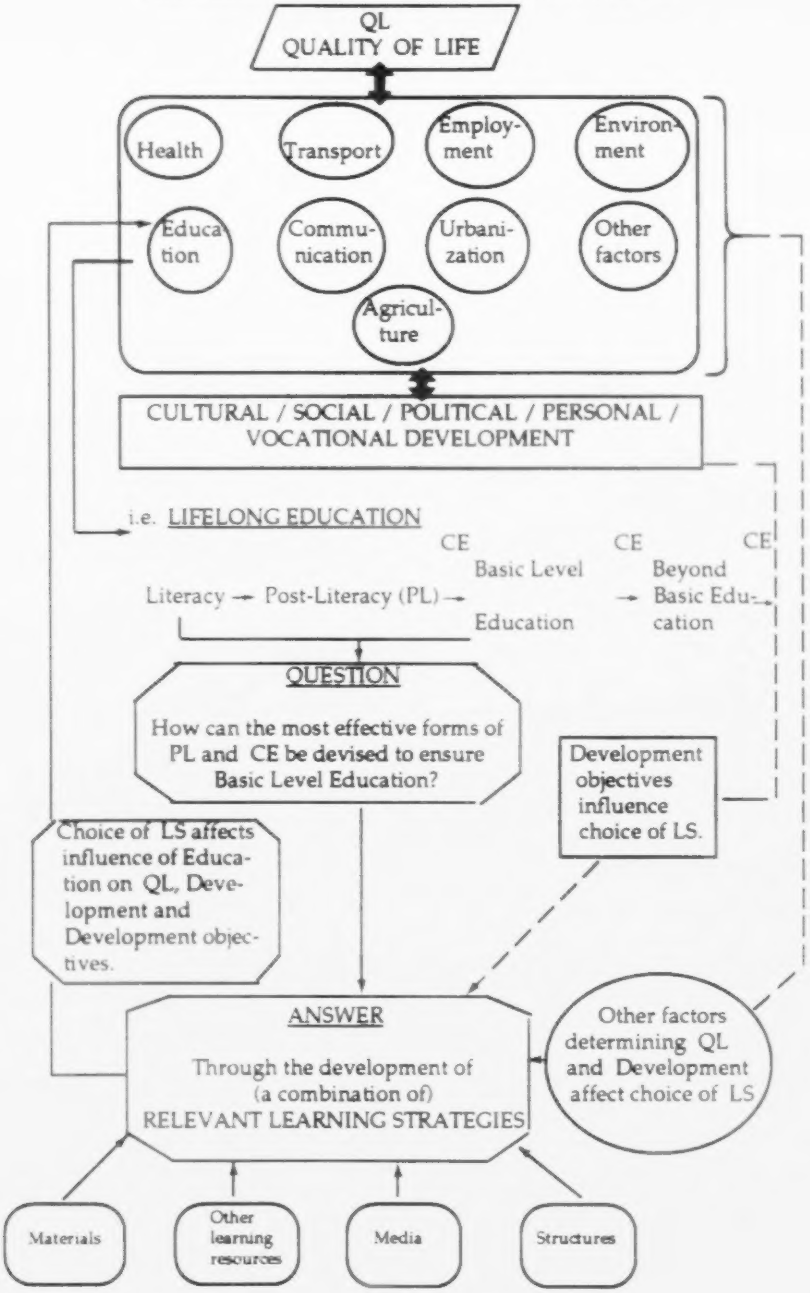
8. correspondence courses;
9. local study and action groups;
10. radio, TV, video, films, etc. (modern electronic and audiovisual media);
11. traditional and folk media; and
12. sports, games and physical culture.

These represent various approaches adopted by educators in order to use material, methodological and other aids to increase the learning capacity and achievement of the neo-literate. It should be remembered that they are in no way new or unique, but they have been successfully employed in different settings to enhance learning because of their communicative and/or participative power.

Factors Influencing the Development of Learning Strategies

The development of LS should be viewed within the conceptual framework on page 28. Post-literacy, as part of the overall education system, aims at the achievement of development objectives which include human development. The social and physical environment, which is the context of this development, constitutes a significant element in the design of LS. The nature of the LS which are eventually developed will depend on various factors including the materials and other resources available, the existing structures and networks of agencies, and the types of media which can be used to generate learning.

THE CONTRIBUTION OF PL AND CE LEARNING STRATEGIES TO IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF LIFE


QL
QUALITY OF LIFE
Health
Transport
Employment
Environment
Education
Communication
Urbanization
Other factors
Agriculture
CULTURAL / SOCIAL / POLITICAL / PERSONAL / VOCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT
i.e. LIFELONG EDUCATION
CE
CE
CE
Literacy
Post-Literacy (PL)
Basic Level Education
Beyond Basic Education
QUESTION
How can the most effective forms of PL and CE be devised to ensure Basic Level Education?
Development objectives influence choice of LS.
Choice of LS affects influence of Education on QL, Development and Development objectives.
ANSWER
Through the development of (a combination of) RELEVANT LEARNING STRATEGIES
Other factors determining QL and Development affect choice of LS
Materials
Other learning resources
Media
Structures

In the actual process of creating LS, four elements should be particularly borne in mind:

a. The use of the **Environment** - the utilization of numerous educational and development activities to create a favourable learning environment.

b. The use of **Communication Media** - which involves the application of a combination of media both modern and traditional, to the attainment of learning objectives.

c. The **Integration of Objectives** - this takes into account the dissemination of a variety of competencies and skills which lead to the development of learning strategies resulting in income generation as well as integrated development projects.

d. The use of a **Network of Structures** - the inclusion of such structures as community centres, libraries and mobile exhibitions in an effective combination of LS.

In the implementation of LS, besides the environment and the larger objectives to be attained, key roles are played by the learner and learning interactions, which may be governed by the learning resources available.

The Learner

As practitioners, we are aiming to assist any learner with whom we work from one point of development to another determined point. This will require us to make practical arrangements for learning.

For any given learner to move through the range Literacy -> Post-Literacy -> Basic Education -> Beyond Basic

Education, he has to go through a process of interactions with the learning environment, and the quality of these interactions determines the quality of the learning experience.

The Learning Environment and Interactions

a. Three elements feature in the **learning environment**. These are:
   - The teacher (facilitator or animator or change agent);
   - Other learners;
   - Materials and media for learning.

b. Three types of possible **interaction** occur in the learning environment:

   i. Interaction with the teacher, where the teacher plans the programme and directs it. There is a clear hierarchy and the roles are fixed. This type of interaction results in **Guided Learning** with the direction being determined mainly by the teacher.
   ii. Interaction occurs among the participants who learn from each other in a permissive atmosphere. The roles of teaching and learning are constantly reversed during such interaction and learning is horizontal. This results in **Inter-Learning**.
   iii. The learner interacts with certain media and materials. These materials could be a textbook, audio cassette etc., and the learner's interaction with any of these may result in new learning or reinforced learning. Such interaction gives rise to **Self-Learning** or **Individualized Learning**.

Learning Resources

The decision to use any of these interactions depends on the learning resources. These resources, when planned and implemented at programme or national level, are the various **learning strategies** which we may use in order to generate learning.

The main learning resource is the textbook, which is unique in the sense that it is a combination of content (i.e. a body of knowledge) as well as techniques of learning (i.e. methods and procedures).

To generate learning, we may use various other learning strategies, such as the library, newspapers etc. A library, for example, is alien to most of the cultures in developing countries and its use has to be developed. We also have a new range of media such as the radio, TV and satellite transmissions for education.

The use of all these strategies requires planning. The techniques we use will be dictated by the resources we can make available. The question is, how can we maximize the use of the resources for the learning interaction? And how do we use the resources in our various programmes?

Types and Forms of LS

Several classifications of the LS have been attempted from various perspectives depending on the **mode of communication** chosen (printed versus non-printed media; new electronic media versus traditional or folk media), the **structural setting** used and its relation to the school system (formal versus nonformal, out-of-school strategies parallel and/

or complementary to each other; libraries, museums and mobile exhibitions), and the main **learning objectives** (basic general educational approaches versus vocational, income-generating or extension strategies). On the basis of regional consultations, the Asian Cultural Centre for Unesco (ACCU) has worked out the classification of learning materials for neo-literates shown in Table 1, p. 33.

Characteristics of LS

From the perspective of lifelong education, the programme of literacy and post-literacy learning should be viewed as a **continuum** of total education, aimed at reducing inequality, increasing the degree of **democratization** in education, and achieving the higher goals of development associated with the quality of life.

Such education should not be acquired only through the formal education system, but also through the nonformal system and even through informal learning opportunities created by the printed media as well as non-printed media of both modern (i.e. radio, TV, video, etc.) and traditional types, so that the total **learning** continuum is **integrated** into the learner's personal social and vocational domains of Life.

The learning strategies focused on the aims mentioned above should be **flexible** and take local conditions into account, in order to provide **alternative approaches** to suit individuals and their groups.

There should be an **increasing degree of independence**, leading to self-directed learning as the neo-literate continues his learning and acquires basic education.

Table 1: Possible Formats for Materials for Neo-Literates

CATEGORY	FORMAT
1. Printed book	book booklet photonovella comics etc.
2. Printed non-book	poster leaflets (flyers) wall newspapers news periodicals and journals flipchart picture story-telling hardboard set cards (flash cards, picture cards), etc.
3. Electronic media	films (8 mm, 16 mm, etc.) movies videos slides tapes radio programme and TV programme, etc.
4. Games and others	1. Ordinary conventional game card games, jigsaw puzzles, "future" games, games of finance (e.g. "Monopoly"), board games such as sugoroku ("Parcheesi") snakes and ladders, etc. 2. Simulation game 3. Others puppet show, shadow play, fork dance, songs, etc.

Source: *Guidebook for Development and Production of Materials for Neo-literates. Tokyo: ACCU, 1985, p. 28.*

In using the strategies we should pay attention to certain **groups with special needs**, such as women, young people, specific minorities and out-of-school children.

Supportive Principles and Structures

The various experiences of PL and CE analysed forcefully demonstrate:

- the importance of motivating the targets concerned to engage in the process of self-learning;
- the necessity of the learners' participation in the definition and implementation of the overall strategy;
- the need to create a literate environment favouring the use of written communication, particularly in the settings characterized by a predominantly oral culture;
- the necessity to diversify the activities and the institutions to suit the needs of specific target groups;
- the need for coordination and definition of tasks among the institutions concerned.

The multi-agency nature of the PL and CE project assumes that certain preconditions are fulfilled and certain principles observed for its successful implementation. Among these are: the **Establishment of Networks of Structures, Community Involvement** and **Public Awareness.**

Establishment of Networks of Structures

The statement of the aims and characteristics of post-literacy and continuing education in the context of lifelong education highlights the involved and complex nature of such programmes.

As has already been emphasized, the LS as conceived in this handbook do not focus on the **individual learner** but on **classes and groups of learners**. This implies that quite apart from helping learners, in groups, to achieve their objectives, practitioners are faced with the basic task of getting these learners together as groups and keeping them together so that the post-literacy and continuing education programmes may be successfully carried out.

This implies that EVERY PRACTITIONER SHOULD ALSO BE AN ORGANIZER. To be a good organizer requires specific training and advice, which can be obtained in the nearest appropriate training or administrative institutions. Besides this, such an enormous task cannot be performed by a single individual or by a selected few. It is necessary to mobilize all the local resources at immediate disposal, and to look out for talented local personnel even from among the learners to assist in the running of the projects. This calls for the establishment of a network of institutional structures, grassroots organizations and resource persons at local, regional and national levels.

Why Networks?

Networks not only provide general support to individual practitioners, but can in particular:

- establish communication links between the practitioners, neo-literates and other educational agencies;
- foster peer-group support among neo-literates on the one hand, and among facilitators (practitioners) on the other;
- lead to the development of healthy interpersonal communication skills;
- promote the habit of learning to explore better alternative ways of thinking, feeling and living, so essential for acquiring the powers of independent learning and self-management;
- serve as the basis of decision-making for action and also for eventual policy formation, especially at the local level.

Furthermore, there is empirical evidence to show that learning networks promote:

- continuing learning;
- self-confidence;
- self-motivation;
- tolerance of ambiguity;
- initiative and creative curiosity.

Community Involvement

The success of the practitioner will not normally be measured by his personal feeling of satisfaction and achievement; it is likely to depend more upon the extent to which he is able to involve the whole community in the given programme. Since many members of the community can play useful roles in this programme, as many as possible should be involved.

Public Awareness

The ability of the practitioner to include as many elements of the community as possible in the PL and CE programme will result in the creation of public awareness regarding PL and CE and its value to the community as a whole. When this awareness is generated it must be implemented in the learning strategies and used to enhance the general quality of community life for the project participant.

In involving the community in this way, the practitioner helps to integrate the PL and continuing CE programmes, with the result that the learners' aims of self-improvement are no longer isolated, but, rather, supported by a collective community effort.

The main general aims regarding public awareness, then, are as follows:

- to involve as many people as possible
- to make use of all available technology
- to look creatively at new areas of potential support within the community.

Grouping of the LS

For the purpose of this handbook the following groupings have been used:

A. Learning strategies using printed media
  - textbooks, supplementary reading materials and extension literature
  - the rural and/or community press

B. LS using radio, TV and audiovisual media
  - radio
  - TV, video
  - audiovisuals, films

C. Using distance education and correspondence courses as LS

D. Use of libraries, mobile exhibitions and museums as LS
  - rural libraries
  - sound libraries
  - science museums
  - mobile exhibitions

E. Using traditional/folk media and games as LS
  - traditional media
  - games and sports

F. Using local study and action groups and other occasional programmes based on special needs and interests as LS

G. Using out-of-school programmes and award-bearing schemes, institutions parallel to the school system, and other general and vocational nonformal courses as LS
  - income-generating and vocational training programmes and institutions
  - academically oriented programmes and institutions parallel to the formal school system.

Part II

Putting the Learning Strategies into Action

This second part of the handbook introduces detailed examples of the ways in which the learning strategies have been utilized to enhance the learning of neo-literates in PL and CE in a large number of countries.

However, before proceeding to the details, attention should be called to several salient points, some of which have already been made.

1. The Learning Strategies:
    - are interdependent with their objectives, content, forms of planning and organization, structures, etc.;
    - are of equal value: none of them is inherently superior to the others.

2. The practitioners should bear in mind that:
    - they are not dealing with an individual but with a class or group of learners;
    - learners in PL and CE programmes may recount valuable experiences which should be looked out for and recorded, in order to enrich the programme;
    - the possibilities of action are so numerous and so extensive that no single medium can of itself do full justice to them: every effort should therefore be made to use more than one medium;
    - in view of these points, it is necessary to use the learning strategies with an element of honest humility and proceed in a spirit of exploration, together with the learners;
    - therefore, when using the learning strategies, it is essential to be as **imaginative** as possible and to adapt whichever strategies have been chosen to the needs and levels

of the particular group and the social situation. **It should be remembered that no two groups are exactly identical.**

3. Finally, it should be noted that the learning environment is crucial for successful PL and CE programmes. In the use of the learning strategies one needs to be constantly aware that:
   - both the physical and social environment are closely associated with human feelings and reactions. These have a direct effect on social interaction which, in turn, determines the quality of the learning climate;
   - the more congenial the learning climate, the greater the chance of success in the use of the learning strategies.

Unless attention is paid to these points, the time and resources invested in PL and CE through the use of the learning strategies may not bring about the desired results.

This is particularly important in cases where literacy and, in particular, PL activities are intertwined with the **creation and maintenance of a literate environment** in societies hitherto marked by a predominantly oral culture and tradition.

Chapter 3

Learning Strategies Using Printed Media

By printed media we mean all reading materials for neo-literates, e.g., textual material, supplementary reading materials, extension literature, the rural press, or wall-newspapers. A number of further classifications could be made, based on factors such as periodicity, form of publication (brochures, books, booklets, leaflets, calendars, posters, rural newspapers, wall-newspapers, etc.), the goal envisaged (follow-up material, extension literature, supplementary reading material, consolidation material, didactic material, etc.), or the sequencing (graded, non-graded, etc.). Paper-based media are the most widely used, with several countries up to now attempting to explore and take advantage of all the forms available. The printed material is often considered as the means par excellence of achieving the immediate PL objective, i.e., the prevention of a relapse into illiteracy (by consolidating the knowledge acquired, and gaining knowledge and skills through participating in continuing education).

This perception of the supremacy of printed matter was so strong in several cases that PL was reduced to the use of print media, the abundant provision of which was wrongly perceived as the only "preventative" measure to stop the phenomenon of relapse (reversal) into illiteracy. It is now evident that other strategies, i.e. those relying on other forms of media, contribute in a complementary or parallel manner to the same objectives.

The experience gathered will be dealt with in the present handbook under the following two categories:

1. Textbooks, Supplementary Reading Materials and Extension Literature
2. the Rural and/or Community Press and other Newspapers and Wall-Newspapers for Neo-Literates.

TEXTBOOKS, SUPPLEMENTARY READING MATERIALS AND EXTENSION LITERATURE

These fall into the category of printed media, which also accommodates a large variety of other literature, including books, booklets, pamphlets, periodical leaflets, posters, calendars etc. As has already been mentioned, these tend to differ significantly in:

- form;
- presentation and layout;
- the degree to which they cover a theme (i.e. in terms of scope, depth and detail);

the way in which the content is presented (i.e. description, explanation or analysis);
mode and frequency of production.

They may also differ according to:

aim	- the particular aims of the publication (didactic, informative etc.);
content	- the selection and emphasis of particular features;
public	- the target group for which the publication is intended.

Design and Objectives

The objective of textbooks and supplementary reading materials is to support PL and CE in their important goal of ensuring RETENTION, CONTINUATION and APPLICATION of the literacy skills acquired as part of the lifelong learning process.

Reading materials are consequently designed to achieve these objectives in the following ways:

I RETENTION
- reinforcing reading habits;
- maintaining and enhancing knowledge of functional literacy skills;

II CONTINUATION
- promoting the use of reading as an instrument of learning and recreation;
- increasing the individual's knowledge of the linguistic and cultural background;

- getting adult participants involved in the production of reading material;
- cultivating a permanent reading culture within institutional structures, which promotes learning habits in that the student uses reading skills in order to learn something new;
- giving the learners an opportunity to express themselves, thus opening up new horizons;

III APPLICATION

- disseminating various levels of technical information;
- making learners aware of national goals, policies and ideology so that they may become more politically active;
- enabling neo-literates to:
  - understand certain simple techniques in areas such as carpentry, masonry, etc.;
  - widen their theoretical knowledge in agriculture, health, home economics, etc.;
  - participate effectively in planning and implementing development projects in their areas;
- selecting topics with which the reader can identify, thus increasing the potential for commitment on the reader's part to the successful implementation of projects;
- developing a capacity for reflection and criticism, and a healthy attitude towards any changes which could benefit the community as a whole.

Printed media, then, will ensure that the neo-literate retains the literacy skills previously gained, is encouraged to continue practising the new skill and developing it further, and is also encouraged to apply his new skills to solving practical problems in his environment. These will together help create the self-fulfilment necessary for continuing development and progress.

PLEASE NOTE that the division of the ultimate goals into Retention, Continuation and Application is simply meant to draw attention to these important dimensions of the goal of PL and CE. Since these three dimensions overlap, it should not be assumed that practitioners have to finish completely with one phase before beginning the next.

The critical issue is that none of these aspects should be neglected in the attempt to assist neo-literates to become independent learners who are able not merely to acquire information from written material but also to relate this information to their own situation (daily life and local environment) and act upon it if necessary.

Selection of Content

The range of topics covered is wide and varied. It is necessary to carry out a survey of the neo-literate target group so that problems and constraints in their lives can be identified and the relevant social, economic and cultural factors analysed. Several studies suggest that the content should be purposeful, practical and realistic in order to satisfy the needs of the target neo-literates. One approach which is popular in Asia derives the content from the needs of the people, which are then divided into **Ten Basic Aspects of Life** as defined by the Sarvodaya Development Institute. As indicated in the following **Sample of the Priority List** (Table 2), these needs are to be organized and priorities set according to the respective degree of urgency and the importance of each issue to be addressed.

Table 2. Sample of the Priority List of Basic Human Needs

1. Place: (name of the village/community surveyed, etc.) date: ______________

2. Target group: (number of people) ______________ name of surveyor:

(sex, age, occupation, etc. ______________ ______________

(level of literacy) ______________

(others) ______________

ASPECT OF LIFE		PROBLEMS IDENTIFIED BY SURVEY	PRIORITY
A. Essential for life	- Food		
	- Clothing		
	- Housing		
	- Water		
	- Health, recreation and sports		
	- Others		
B. Socio-economic life	- Environment and population		
	- Communication		
	- Income		
	- Others		
C. Educational & cultural life	- Education		
	- Cultural and Spiritual		
	- Others		

notes: ______________________________

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Source: Guidebook for Development of Materials for Neo-Literates. Tokyo: ACCU, 1985, p. 22.

There is no limitation as to what can be chosen as a topic, but topics which lend themselves well to printed presentation should be chosen so as to create maximum effectiveness. According to the participants at the National Workshop for the Development of "Package A" Supplementary Learning Materials in Indonesia, which was held from 13 to 19 October, 1986, the following principles should be taken into account when topics are being prepared:

1. The presentation of topics should be simple, easy, short, direct and clear.
2. Topics should be presented in the native language.
3. Topics should be motivative and attractive.
4. The presentation of structure should be related to content and help make content easy to understand.
5. Topics should help make difficult information interesting.
6. Topics should reflect the problems and needs of the target group.
7. Topics should be related to cultures and propagate national dignity.
8. Topics should represent the concept and content of the materials.
9. Topics should pose problems and situations with which the target group can identify.
10. Topics should be presented in styles that encourage the participation and involvement of the target group.

Participants from the National Workshop also outlined possible themes which may be used for neo-literates:[2]

a. Health
  - Daily health: awaiting the birth of a baby, food conservation, first aid, family care, etc.
  - Sanitation: how to make a lavatory, garbage and waste disposal, a healthy body, etc.
  - Balanced diet: proper selection of food, how to cook properly, etc.
  - Commmon diseases: some contagious diseases, etc.

b. Environment, Science and Technology
  - What is a good environment: a clean home environment, appreciation of nature, etc.
  - Reforestation: the importance of forest, how to properly replant forest.
  - Science and technology in everyday life: water, the uses of water, how to conserve water, flood control.

c. Production
  - Food production: improvement in long-term production (fish-farming, fruit trees, etc.), handicrafts and vocational skills: the creative use of local materials (bamboo, stones, shells, etc.) how to start a home industry.

d. Social and economic aspects
  - Life as a citizen, cooperatives, community responsibilities, family life and economic efficiency.

e. Culture
  - the proper use of recreation and leisure time, cultural heritage, etc.

Some Characteristics of Textual and Supplementary Reading Materials

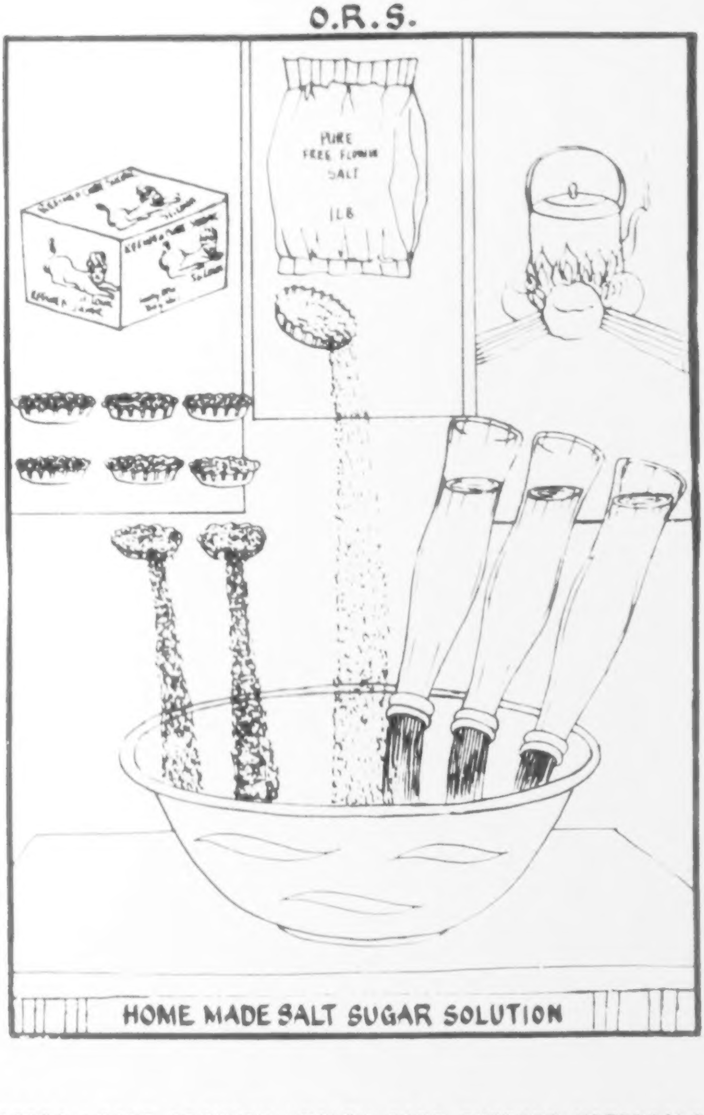
Although textbooks, supplementary reading materials and extension literature fall under the category of the printed media, they have certain distinctive features worth noting at this point:

- Unlike the rural press, textbooks and supplementary reading materials are intended for and specifically addressed to a more restricted target group.
- The structure and sequencing of the material receives a slightly different emphasis:

  In a large mumber of cases the material is graded and structured into course levels;

  In some cases the material is given a pronounced academic orientation since part of the PL programme is to establish links with courses within the formal school system.
- The sequencing may be independent of the grading levels used in the formal school system.

Following pages:
Illustration 1. Sierra Leone Primary Health Care Support Materials Project: Cholera Booklet, Preparation of the Oral Rehydration Solution.

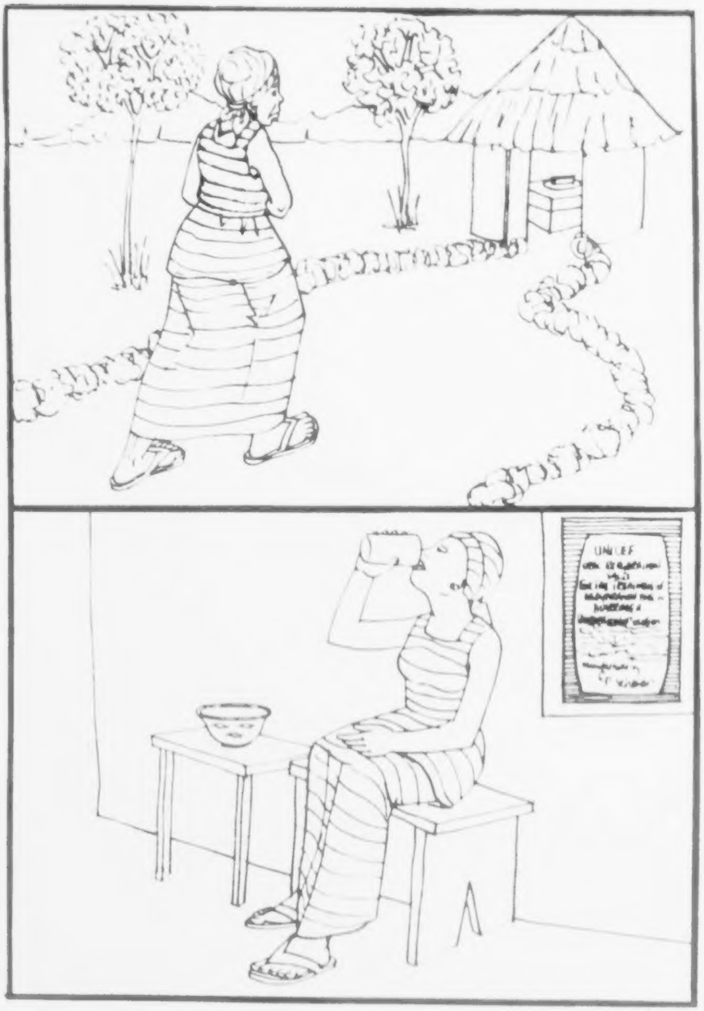

O.R.S.
PURE
FREE FLOWING
SALT
1LB
HOME MADE SALT SUGAR SOLUTION

SIERRA LEONE PRIMARY HEALTH CARE SUPPORT MATERIALS PROJECT.

CHOLERA BOOKLET

PAGE 16 The home preparation of O.R.S. is as follows:-

8 bottle tops of sugar
½" top " salt
To 3 pints of safe clean water



PAGE 17 If the attack continues the victim should be given the O.R.S. as frequently as possible until the vomiting and diarrhoea ceases.

- The usual determining factors for grading are, among others:
  - range of vocabulary
  - sentence length
  - ideational content of the material
  - complexity of the illustrative material.
- In some cases, the grading takes account of particular language difficulties experienced by the specific neo-literate group for whom the material is intended.
- As regards the organization of the content, the complexity is generally maintained. The messages transmitted tend to be
  - meaningful
  - critical, and sometimes
  - esoteric.

The use of the complex content reflects

- the attention given to the characteristics of adult learners, i.e. their maturity, which helps them to cope with such content;
- the tendency of the PL programme to aim mainly at adult participants.

The last point tends to put younger persons in PL programmes at a slight disadvantage. One should, therefore, seek an equilibrium whereby the needs of the adult learner can be satisfied whilst bearing in mind the needs of young people and even children, who are now enrolling in PL programmes in increasingly large numbers.

CHARACTERISTICS OF NEO-LITERATE MATERIALS

The learning behaviour of adults and their reading habits provide very useful clues in designing materials for neo-literates.

Below are some characteristics of neo-literate materials as reproduced from the *Accu Guidebook for Development and Production of Materials for Neo-Literates.*[3]

A. Characteristics relating to purpose

1. The literacy follow-up materials or neo-literate materials should be suited to the learning skills of the target neo-literates. Since there are different types and levels of literacy skills, neo-literate materials must be graded according to language difficulty so that neo-literates with different literacy and other learning skills can use them and acquire required knowledge and skills. Neo-literate materials should help the learners to retain, consolidate and improve their literacy skills.
2. The materials should focus on the real and immediate problems of the learners and on the environment in which they are living.
3. They should promote active learning, i.e., they should help the neo-literate to develop a critical attitude towards problems, to reflect on them, analyse them, discuss them and take proper decisions at the right time.
4. There must be special types of material for specific groups and programmes (women, minorities, immigrants, old people, etc.)

B. Characteristics relating to content

5. Neo-literate materials should be correlated with individual and social development goals. The materials should contain ideas and information about national and individual development programmes, including some materials containing information about specific development activities. Neo-literate materials should promote an interdisciplinary approach in content and facilitate interdepartmental coordination of the different development agencies/programmes.
6. The neo-literate materials should not just pass on information and facts, but should pose problems or describe potential problem conditions and provide related technical and scientific knowledge to help in solving such problems.
7. Neo-literate materials should incorporate learners' participation and draw on their own experiences.
8. Neo-literate materials should promote good citizenship, national integrity, an appreciation of art and culture, etc.
9. Neo-literate materials should, as far as possible, use resources from the culture, folk wisdom and day-to-day experiences of the learner.

C. Characteristics relating to form and application

10. Although the language of neo-literate materials is determined by the language policy of each country, there is a general consensus that neo-literate materials in the learners' mother tongue are much

more effective than are materials in other languages.

11. Neo-literate materials should be simple, attractive and interesting. Since neo-literates have a relatively low level of language skills, the language used in the learning materials should be simple and easy to understand, while the theme and topic should be suited to the level of maturity of the adult learners. Adult learners do not like to be treated as children. Neo-literate materials must be interesting to read. If the learning materials used can create and sustain interest, adults will be interested in continuing learning.
12. Neo-literate materials should utilize visual aids such as illustrations, charts, photographs and drawings as much as possible, and these should be suited to the learners' interests and needs.
13. All types of neo-literate material, when viewed together, should give clues as to how different materials could be used in combination. The combination of different types of neo-literate material aids in imparting difficult knowledge, and the different materials help to reinforce each other's impact.
14. Neo-literate materials should provide for progression at a rate commensurate with the learner's individual ability. Self-evaluation and group evaluation techniques should be integrated into each type of material.

Reading Interests of Neo-Literates

The preparation of reading materials for neo-literates is generally based on three assumptions: (1) reading is an instrument for the lifelong learning process of the reader concerned, (2) the reading interests of neo-literates are somewhat different from those of advanced readers and their choice of content is more restricted, and (3) reading materials for neo-literates, though "adult" in content, have to adjust themselves to the elementary level of literacy acquired by the reader.

For neo-literate readers who are generally committed to tradition, it may not be immediately possible to conceive of even the possibility of lifelong learning and social change. Materials which cover their immediate interests are therefore important. In some of the surveys carried out on the reading interests of neo-literates, different types of readers' preferences have emerged.[4] For instance, a survey conducted in Tanzania indicated the following range of interests:

- famous people
- sports and games
- trade
- traditions
- technical publications
- crafts
- fiction.

A similar survey carried out in Iran showed that the readers' preferences there were:

- agriculture
- folklore
- dressmaking

- health
- technology
- religion
- humour.

These two lists show clearly that the reading preferences of the neo-literates are not the same in all countries and all cultures. They may vary even from one group to another in the same locality according to gender, occupation, commitment to oral tradition, emerging social and economic needs, and so on.

In the case of reading materials prepared by the Maharashtra State Resource Centre at the Indian Institute of Education, the following preferences have been found:

- health
- growing vegetables
- horticulture
- child-care
- fiction (mainly based on folklore)
- simple technology.

Obviously, this classification also includes gender-based preferences. Booklets on health, growing vegetables, and child-care are in greater demand among neo-literate women and booklets on health, horticulture and technology are preferred by neo-literate men. Although men also show some interest in growing vegetables, they are not interested at all in child-care. Basically, it is not an easy task to communicate and promote development and change through the medium of neo-literate reading materials, despite serious efforts to produce attractive illustrated materials, because of the diverse reading interests within the target groups.

The Use of Textbooks, Supplementary Materials and Extension Literature as Learning Strategies in PL and CE

This section presents practical ways in which textbooks, supplementary material and extension literature have been used in various countries and situations as learning strategies for neo-literates. The focus here is on the variety of ways in which people have used their initiative to apply these tools as creatively as possible in helping neo-literates.

Practitioners do not have to shoulder this responsibility alone. Apart from fellow practitioners, specialists from appropriate central agencies and voluntary bodies, and selected decision-makers should be involved in the process of preparing reading materials. All available local resources should be used in planning textbooks and supplementary materials. The participation of neo-literates themselves in the development of new reading materials is extremely important in strengthening the PL and CE programmes, and this will be highlighted in some of the examples selected.

Learning to read and write, especially at the PL and CE levels, is an important exercise whose ultimate goal is to equip the learner with knowledge, skills and attitudes that will eventually enable the neo-literate to make adjustments to his whole life and future circumstances. This literacy skill, if well assimilated, will form a new basis for thinking, essential for the transformation of perspective which is needed in order to develop a better quality of life.

A planned programme for self-reading needs to be initiated even in the first year of literacy so that the learners can learn to read on their own and thus break the ties of dependency which will otherwise bind them to their instructor.

If this is not done, the production of literature, even if it is of very good quality, will be of very little avail. Without the formation of reading habits and a taste for reading, the transition from oracy to literacy will not take place.

A pleasant learning environment and an ambience for reading must be created in the rural area. The rural environment is predominantly a non-literacy environment. It is extremely difficult to develop or sustain literacy in an environment where one can travel for miles without encountering any written symbol. As opposed to this, the creation of a literate environment can increase the demand for literacy skills, challenge the capacity of neo-literates and hence enhance their motivation for reading.

Nobody can go through this process for, or on behalf of the neo-literates. The practitioner's task is to assist them and guide them in developing this quality themselves. This can best be done by providing them with thought-provoking reading material which will cause them to reflect upon the ways in which they can apply their new reading skills in real-life situations.

Frequently, however, materials specifically designed for neo-literates are not available or available in restricted quantities. Hence, programme organizers have to use materials already produced (largely for extension purposes) by various other government and non-governmental organizations. In such situations the organizers and instructors/animators need to know how to assess existing materials and how to choose the most appropriate ones for their programme. The assessment sheet shown in Table 3, reproduced from the ACCU *Guidebook*, may be used for this purpose.

Table 3. *Assessment Sheet for learning Materials*

Assessment sheet

Title of material ____________________
Type of material ____________________
Name of author(s) ____________________
Name of publisher ____________________
Date of publication ____________________

Aspects to be assessed	Assessment scale				
	Poor	Fair	Good	Very Good	Excellent
1. Matching between instructional objective of neo-literate programme and objective of the material					
2. Relevance between subject matter of the material and course of studies of the neo-literate programme - Adequacy - Authenticity - Up-to-dateness					
3. Suitability of language used in the material in regard to language ability of the target learners					
4. Appropriateness of the presentation - Simplicity - Clarity - Level of interest					
5. Adequacy and relevance of examples and experiences					
6. Adequacy and relevance of exercises					
7. Illustrations - Adequacy - Relevance - Attractiveness					
8. Physical aspects - Suitability of material - Suitability of type size - Quality of paper - Quality of printing - Quality of binding - Appropriateness of price					
9. Overall assessment					

Source: Guidebook for Development and Production of Materials for Neo-Literates. Tokyo: ACCU, 1985, p. 70.

After assessment the organizers and teachers should find out whether the materials could be utilized:

a. directly for the neo-literate programme
b. in combination with other materials
c. with additions or alterations.

Examples of the Use of Textbooks, Supplementary Materials and Extension Literature as LS

The examples gathered from the studies tend to fall into two groups according to the objectives they are serving. They may be oriented towards a **broad overall development** of the community as a whole with emphasis on extension and application functions. They may also be **academically oriented**, performing the role of curriculum material. The development-oriented material may or may not be **graded**, whilst that which is academically oriented functions as learning material, and is **graded accordingly**. This distinction is primarily for the convenience of presentation, since much of the material is difficult (if not impossible) to confine only to one or other of these categories. The following experiences, taken from different countries, have been selected to illustrate the two types of material mentioned above.

NON-GRADED DEVELOPMENT-ORIENTED MATERIAL

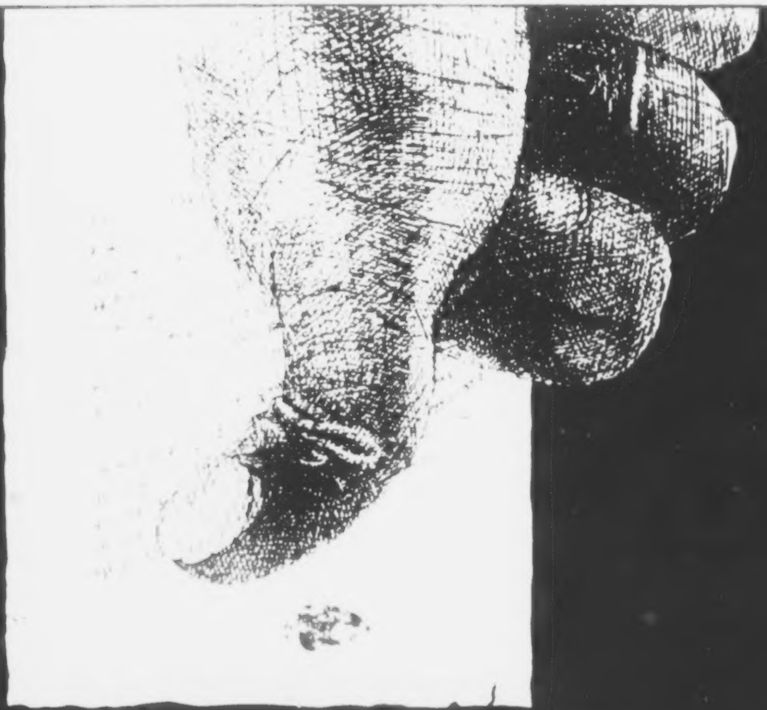
These materials are designed to focus on the content of the text. The main motto is: "Reading to learn" whereby the knowledge acquired by the learner is used for development purposes (extension) and for personal enlightenment. Selected examples of this can be found in *Brazil*, *Burkina Faso*, *Mali* and *Nigeria*.

"String Literature" in Brazil

The programmes described here are those of MOBRAL, which was closed down by the Government of the country in 1986 and replaced with a new organization called EDUCAR, which has different goals and is also structured differently. In *Brazil*, the PL programme of MOBRAL provided neo-literates with a series of reading materials generally described as *literatura de cordel*. The books were so named because they were often sold attached to a string. They were simple booklets based on existing technical material with the vocabulary adjusted to the level of the neo-literates.

Opposite page:
Illustration 2. Poster from the Indian national literacy campaign. The text reads:

> We borrowed only one hundred rupees
> Gave our thumb impression on a paper
> For many years we have been paying interest
> But still the debt remains unpaid.



रुक्के ऊपर टेक अंगूठा
सौ रुपये ही लिये उधार
ब्याज चुकाते बरसों बीते
फिर भी पाये नहीं उतार

The books mainly covered extension themes, dealing notably with agriculture, stock-breeding and health.

The principal titles were:

- "Learn farming with string books" (*Aprenda a agricultura em literatura de cordel)*
- "Cattle breeding and how to give necessary aid to the herds" *(Bovinocultura é como criar e dar assitencia necessaria ao rebanho)*.

A series of other booklets was written in verse by poets.

Extension Literature in Burkina Faso

The provision of abundant reading for neo-literates is the responsibility of the National Directorate of Literacy (DNA) and its partners. The objectives which underlie these reading materials are to:

- satisfy the reading requirements of the neo-literates;
- sharpen their intellectual curiosity so that they can continue to learn and derive more satisfaction from life.

One of the most interesting features of the *Burkina Faso* pattern for providing such reading materials is that **every** literacy programme, in a given language, has corresponding PL literature prepared in close cooperation with the relevant technical services. This system compels neo-literates to realize at the outset that the acquisition of this new skill of literacy is not an end in itself but is simply a means of acquiring more complex information that can help them improve the quality of their lives.

More than fifty titles have been produced covering the following fields of interest:

- water hygiene
- community work
- living environment
- problems regarding family and children
- the country and its development
- family economy
- various cultures.

The main objective of Textbooks and Supplementary Material in Burkina Faso is **the creation of awareness** in the neo-literates, so that their environment becomes a challenging reality which they themselves are capable of controlling.

Extension Literature in Mali

The preparation and production of textual and other reading materials is relatively varied in *Mali*.

Mali produced the first extension manuals for neo-literates in 1978. These manuals dealt with themes related to water, health, animal husbandry, and similar topics of immediate concern.

Now materials for the consolidation of literacy skills (i.e. for PL programmes) are being developed through the combined efforts of:

- the National Directorate of Functional Literacy and Applied Linguistics (DNAFLA);
- Rural Development Agencies;
- other Technical Services in the field, notably those of health, agriculture, soils, cooperation, waterways and forests.

All the materials are mainly oriented towards the advancement of people living in remote rural areas of the country. The materials are specifically adapted towards the improvement of the people's

- production
- income
- quality of life in general.

In addition to the PL materials developed by DNAFLA and the other organizations named above, the following developments have also taken place:

- A large number of extension brochures and booklets have been produced along the same lines, focusing on the issues most vital to farmers or matters closest to their concerns. These include agriculture, soils, fertilizers, gardening, livestock breeding, health, hygiene, nutrition, pregnancy, cooperation, credit, and similar topics.
- The oral tradition and tales from the countryside are reflected in the brochures and booklets.

Reading Materials for Neo-literates in Nigeria

Reading materials intended specifically for the use of neo-literates in *Nigeria* were first circulated in 1972. Due to the intensive trading activities in which most of the neo-literates were involved, a series of reading materials was developed around this. This series was popularly known as *Audu at the Market*.

Many other books and pamphlets intended for neo-literates have been written since then. The most recent series deals with the following themes:

- domestic skills
- wheat cultivation
- between-season gardening
- mechanics.

The series is popularly known as the *Onitsha Series*, Onitsha being the name of the village in the Anambra State where the series is published.

Other follow-up brochures are produced covering a wide choice of subjects, ranging from short stories to do-it-yourself brochures.

GRADED DEVELOPMENT-ORIENTED MATERIAL

In addition to sharing the objectives of the development-oriented materials, particular attention is given to the reading proficiency of the neo-literates and the internal structuring of the topics. The materials are designed so as to match the degree of literacy already acquired by the neo-literate, whilst at the same time enabling him to expand upon this knowledge and improve his literacy skills.

Materials for Neo-literates in India

In *India*, the neo-literate materials being produced at present can be placed in varying categories of difficulty as shown in the diagram below:

Strictly controlled
Increasing levels of difficulty
Unmoderated

basic literacy materials	transition materials	special news bulletins, wall-newspapers	prize competition material	material available in the market, extension literature etc.
I	II	III	IV	V

Most of the neo-literate materials being produced by the National Resource Centre (NRC) and the State Resource Centres (SRC's) fall into the transition stage category.

The texts of the these materials run to 500 to 1,000 words. Words containing conjunct consonants are restricted or, if possible, avoided. The length of a sentence is normally limited to 10-12 words. The simplification techniques adopted in these materials also include allocating equal space to text and pictures. The latter often tend to carry more importance in publications with a specific theme. The idea is to "verbalize the pictures rather than picturize words".

In the last few years, comics have caught the imagination of writers not only in the area of neo-literate materials but also in materials for advanced readers and even for textbooks used for science and social studies. Some SRC's are now publishing excellent comics for adults.

Since good illustrations are not always easily available and since the camera has become a handy instrument for capturing realistic situations, some SRC's have adopted the *photonovella* as a means of presenting socially relevant topics vividly and realistically. Photonovella is a technique whereby a story or a message is effectively conveyed through a series of photographs arranged in sequence as a booklet instead of hand-drawn pictures. This technique brings the producers of materials a step closer to developing audiovisual materials.[5]

In some of the states in the country, fairly high quantities of simple booklets on science which can be applied in daily life are being published. There is quite a long tradition of such publications in the State of Kerala, where the production of these booklets together with a people's library movement has opened up the way to education and modernization for the people living in rural areas.

"Kejar Packet A" Reading Material in Indonesia[6]

The PL programme which is implemented in Indonesia by the Department of Community Education (PENMAS) links up with the Literacy Programme, at one end of the spectrum, and the Basic Education Programme, at the other. The aim is to ensure that such links are maintained. This also serves as a forceful reminder to neo-literates that they should not become complacent after acquiring their literacy skills, but rather should regard these new skills as the beginning of a new outlook on life.

The programme is carried out through two main channels. These are:

- self-learning and apprenticeship courses;
- courses designed for learning groups.

The system is popularly known as *Kejar Packet A*. "Kejar" in the Indonesian language has three destinct meanings:

a. Literally, it means "to catch up" or "to improve one's life".

b. It is also a contraction of the words *kelompok belajar*, meaning "learning group". This is significant because all the PENMAS activities at the community level are based upon the abilities, needs, resources, and dynamism of the local learning groups.

c. "Kejar" is also a contraction of the words *bekerja* and *belajar*, meaning "work" and "study", showing the integration of daily life activities (i.e. work) and learning (study) into one concept. These two elements, work and study, must be linked to one another in order to make PL a realistic way of life for the neo-literate.

The composition of *Kejar Packet A*, as explained below, will give an idea of how this package supports the use of Textbooks and Supplementary Reading Materials as LS.

Kejar Packet A consists of a series of 100 titles meant for basic reading and constitutes information on an extensive range of relevant topics for the educationally deprived (e.g. those who have left the formal school system too early to remain literate on their own, the out-of-school population and neo-literates). The package is designed to enable neo-literates and other users to acquire the minimum knowledge and skills necessary to raise their living standards.

Opposite page:
Illustration 3. Titles from the Indonesian *Kejar Packet A* Basic Learning Materials.

A73

Kerajinan Tangan

A86 Mengenal Seni Teater Daerah

DEPARTEMEN PENDIDIKAN DAN KEBUDAYAAN
1981

A5

DEPARTEMEN PENDIDIKAN DAN KEBUDAYAAN
197[illegible]

Kami .... ayam di rumah.
½ + ⅓ = ...
1kg = 10 ons.

The materials are carefully graded and the course follows a defined sequence:

i. *The first 20 parts* of the series contain integrated basic lessons which aim at providing instrumental skills.
These are intended to lay the foundation upon which further knowledge is built.

ii. *The subsequent titles* constitute follow-up and continuation materials, whose object is to impart further functional skills and promote the attitudes required for developing a new way of living.

Kejar Packet A is designed to provide:

- materials for basic learning; and
- materials for continuing learning.

PLEASE NOTE: In order to help the learner understand the content, the programme includes progressive, supplementary material which emphasizes details of what has initially been taught, so that the learners can simply apply their skills through the act of reading. In this respect, THE SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL SERVES AS A WORK MANUAL.

In addition, PENMAS publishes *Guides* on how supplementary material may be produced which encourage the production of material at local and village levels.
These guides each contain the technical description of a particular skill, to facilitate practical training in that skill.

Personal assessment constitutes another means of encouragement.

- A final assessment test may be given, on request, any time after completing the course.

- Those who pass the test receive a Certificate of Participation in the Packet A Learning Programme.

Textbooks for New Readers in Venezuela

Textbooks designed specifically for neo-literates are produced by the Regional Adult Education Centre (CREA). The materials are graded and the topics organized into groups, ranging from those giving specific direct knowledge or general information to those dealing with more complex issues of human behaviour and interaction, such as:

- family attitudes
- group activities
- community and local problems
- information about work
- problems affecting society, etc.

ACADEMICALLY ORIENTED MATERIAL

In all countries whose PL programmes are academically oriented and which frequently have established equivalence between the PL programmes and courses given in the formal school system, the materials are strictly graded and structured into courses and levels. This is notably the case in China, Colombia, Cuba, Egypt, Jamaica, Kuwait, Tanzania, Venezuela and Vietnam.

Textbooks and Supplementary Readers in Egypt[7]

In Egypt, the Ministry of Education cooperates with many other organizations in the public sector to create vocational training centres and to organize vocational and skill-training programmes. Some of the organizations offering this type of training are the Ministry of Industry, the Ministry of Housing, Construction and Land Reclamation, the Ministry of Communications, the Ministry of Defence, the Ministry of Social Affairs and the Ministry of Labour. The two major objectives are to:

- provide a trained labour force for the building and construction industry;
- supply a type of vocational training for drop-outs from primary education, offering them a skill in building and construction which is in demand in the employment market and which will help increase their income. Training for this industry requires technical and theoretical study, which helps to keep learners from relapsing into illiteracy.

The Arab States Fundamental Education Centre (ASFEC, now the Regional Centre for Adult Education) has published two series of follow-up books for the building and construction training centres, which treat aspects of vocational, religious, historical, cultural, labour and health education. The first series was entitled *Sanitary Works*, and the second, *The Cultural Book*. The first series was published in three volumes. In preparing these books, the following points played an important role:

- the use of simple, classical Arabic and a style to facilitate understanding by the learner, whose level is the equivalent of the fifth primary grade;
- exactitude in terms of technical material and scientific content;
- clarity of meaning, simplicity of language and appropriate structure of content;
- use of the basic scientific terminology used in the trade or type of work discussed, with the Arabic equivalent wherever possible;
- presentation of ideas in a simple form suited to vocational education;
- consistency and continuity between the subject and the scientific content of each book;
- structuring of the books, dividing content into chapters dealing with one kind of practical activity each, and ensuring logical ordering between paragraphs and sentences, in order to facilitate the learners' understanding;
- the use of a dissertation style when dealing with practical exercises;
- a gradual modification of the print type of the books from large to small type in order to accustom neo-literates to the regular print type used in other publications.

Supplementary and Advanced Reading Materials in Jamaica[8]

In Jamaica, there are two distinct types of textual reading materials:

- supplementary reading materials, which are prepared for all levels of learners with the exception of Level 1, which does not fall within the PL programme; and
- advanced reading materials for those who have graduated from JAMAL (Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy) literacy courses at Level 4, as well as for those not formally enrolled in the literacy classes but who have attained a comparable level of literacy.

Some 63 supplementary titles have been produced. Each title falls within one of the eight topics listed. These topics are:

- nation building
- history and cultural patterns
- agriculture
- self-reliance
- religion
- health and nutrition
- industry
- fiction.

The vocabulary of the basic reader is extended through the supplementary readers. Materials of this kind should convey technical knowledge and provide information and entertainment.

A synopsis of some of the Supplementary Readers produced by the Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy (JAMAL) is given in Table 4.

These JAMAL materials are carefully prepared, with particular attention paid to the following points:

- the use of specialized empirically tested techniques of gradation and vocabulary selection;
- the grading, which takes account of language difficulties and writing ability;
- the vocabulary used, which is systematically checked against the recommended *Supplementary Reading Vocabulary* of 3,000 words compiled by Dr. Edgar Dale, Professor of Adult Education.

The stylistic grading of the material is independent of content and structure of the subject matter treated.

Post-Literacy Textual Materials in Tanzania[9]

As mentioned elsewhere, the textbooks used for PL in Tanzania are strictly graded and classified into stages. The PL series covers stages five, six and seven.

Each stage has eleven books, each with the corresponding Teacher's Guide; topics covered include:

- political education
- mathematics
- home economics
- handicrafts
- history
- geography
- agriculture
- political economy
- Swahili
- English.

The textbooks have an average of 70 pages. The vocabulary ranges between 100 to 200 words per page; an entire book contains about 12,000 words. Most words have two to four syllables. Sentences contain between seven and ten words. There are between eight and twelve different topics. Each topic constitutes a lesson or a chapter. The repetition of new syllables and words is about 40 per cent. Each lesson

Table 4. *JAMAL Supplementary / Reading Materials*

LEVEL	TITLE	
	BASIC	SUPPLEMENTARY
1	**Our Class & Our Family** Reader, Workbook, Teachers' Guide	
2	**A Day With The Sharpes** Reader, Workbook, Teachers' Guide	**Plan To Get Married? Steps To Take** * **What To Do When Someone Dies** * **How To Register A Child** * **Let's Plan A Kitchen Garden** **Jamaica Needs The Farmer** **Your Child** **Let's Keep The City Clean** *
3	**Henry Sharpe** Reader, Workbook, Teachers' Guide	**Value For Money** **The Arawaks of Jamaica** **Stories Jesus Told** **The Credit Union Story** * **Sam Sharpe** **Jamaicans - Who Are We?** **Foods Our Bodies Need** **Our Civic Duties** **Lovers' Leap & Other Folk Stories** **Let's Talk Banking** **The Maroons** **Work Together Start A Co-op**

* These books should be read to level 1 for Information and Motivation

LEVEL	TITLE	
	BASIC	SUPPLEMENTARY
4	**Henry Learns To Drive** Reader, Workbook, Teachers' Guide	**Pig Rearing** **C For Constitution, Book 1** **Rockies Dream Comes True** **Guide To Learner Drivers** **A Trade For Son-Son** **Drainage & Irrigation** **Tacky** **Three Finger Jack** (a Publication of Collin & Sangster) **From Horseback To Jetplane** **Morant Bay Rebellion** **The Nine Principles of Nazareth United** **The Sugar Industry** **The Tourist Industry**
Advanced reading Materials		**Bauxite Story** **The Sugar Industry** **Museums of the Institute of Jamaica** **Della** **The very Young Ones** **Julius Nyerere** **Learn A Skill** **The United Nations At Work in Jamaica** **A New Dawn For Women** **The Commonwealth** **English Exercises, Book 1** **Unforgettable Sunday**
All Levels		**Let's Read** - Monthly newspaper containing articles written at various reading levels.

has exercises on comprehension and factual knowledge. The mathematics books contain practical mathematics related to activities of adult learners such as shopping bills, bookkeeping, profit and loss, measurements, costs and money, how to tell the time, geometry, voting, enrolment, population and agriculture. Stage five is much more heavily illustrated by pictures, diagrams, drawings, maps, and charts than stage seven.

All the books have at the end a glossary of new syllables and new words used throughout the book. To ensure that all the books are properly graded, there is a meeting of all subject coordinators after the books for each stage have been written and before they are printed.

Other interesting features are:

- A multi-media element is introduced into the use of these reading materials through intensive publicity on the radio, in rural newspapers, in rural libraries and cinemas. This is done to make people aware of the need for PL and CE.
- In PL textbooks, prominence is given to the oral literature on which extensive and systematic research has been carried out.

Development and Production of Post-Literacy Materials, Textbooks and Supplementary Reading Materials

Once the content and format of the publication have been decided on, production takes place in roughly the order given in the chart on page 84.

Procedure of Developing Materials for Neo-literates

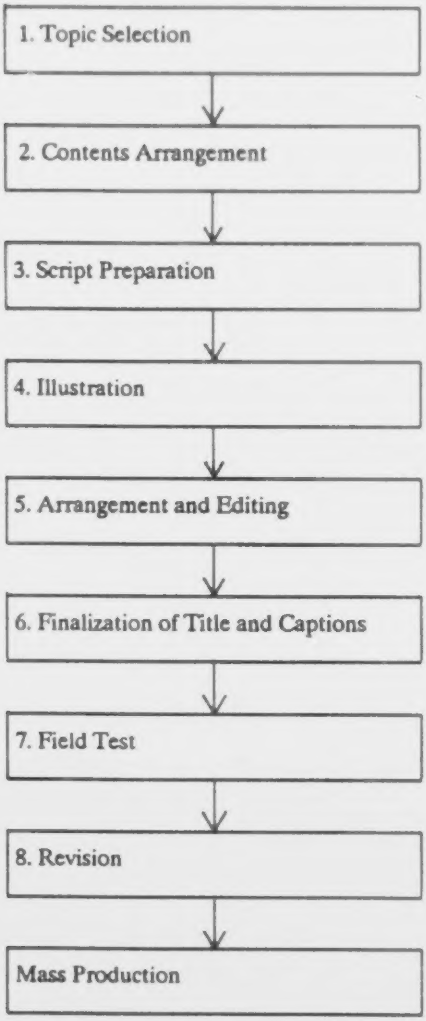
However, as regards the production of textbooks and supplementary reading materials as LS for PL, different countries and different institutions and organizations adopt their own specific style, particulary with regard to their approach to production in general.

In this section we introduce various production methods and approaches. Practitioners are urged to study this range of production and methods carefully, so that they can create fresh combinations of these to enrich their programmes.

Before discussing details and actual examples, let us examine the **two** major approaches adopted by various countries.

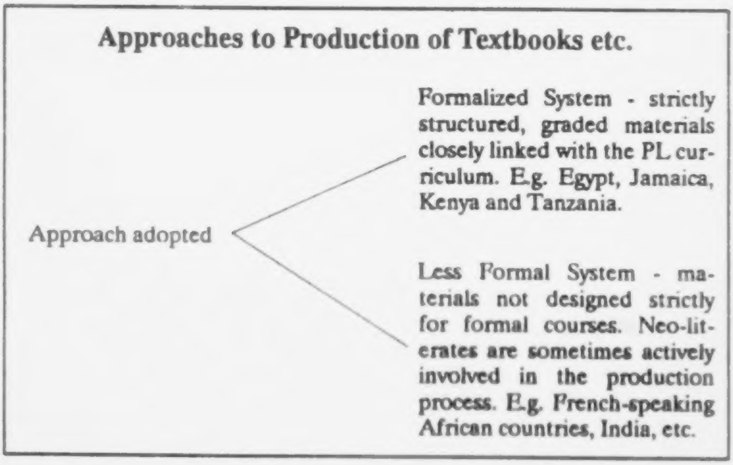
- **First**, some countries produce very formal textbooks and supplementary reading materials. This mode of production is adopted because these books and other materials are used for highly structured courses. The best examples of this are found in Egypt, Jamaica, Kenya and Tanzania.

THE SEQUENCE OF PRODUCTION OF MATERIALS


1. Topic Selection
2. Contents Arrangement
3. Script Preparation
4. Illustration
5. Arrangement and Editing
6. Finalization of Title and Captions
7. Field Test
8. Revision
Mass Production

Source: Guidebook for Development and Production of Materials for Neo-Literates. Tokyo: ACCU, 1985, p. 29

- **Second**, some other countries adopt a less formal approach to the production of textbooks and other supplementary materials for PL and CE. Cases in point are the French-speaking countries of West Africa, India, etc. (see diagram below).



Approaches to Production of Textbooks etc.

Approach adopted

Formalized System - strictly structured, graded materials closely linked with the PL curriculum. E.g. Egypt, Jamaica, Kenya and Tanzania.

Less Formal System - materials not designed strictly for formal courses. Neo-literates are sometimes actively involved in the production process. E.g. French-speaking African countries, India, etc.

Note, however, that although the materials produced using the formalized system approach are highly structured and are intended for the PL courses in which the neo-literates participate, other learners not enrolled in these PL classes can still use the books independently.

In the second approach, the main idea is to give the neo-literates themselves the opportunity of participating in the actual technical production of the material, and they are encouraged to write some of the articles which are used for PL. In this approach, these books are not strictly used as textbooks, and learners thus have greater flexibility and independence in using them as PL material.

Development of the Content of the Textbooks

The content of Textbooks and Supplementary Reading Materials is often based on a transcription of oral literature, which constitutes a rich heritage for the country's culture, handed down from generation to generation and enriched and elaborated in the process. In some cases, illustrations are added to the text to make the content more appealing, whilst in other cases, translations have to be made from another tongue or dialect.

These materials are based on different sources, including stories, songs, riddles, proverbs, legends, poems, maxims, parables, etc. Most of these are used for special ceremonies such as birth, puberty, marriage, funerals and various other significant occasions and festivals.

Various methods which can be used to collect these materials are given below.

Fieldwork

Single researchers or a team of researchers go into the countryside in quest of the storytellers. With the help of cassette recorders, they record these stories etc., which are then transcribed and used as texts for PL. Researchers who do not have access to tape recorders merely listen to these stories or anecdotes, make notes and write them up later in the form of articulate reading material.

Workshops

A workshop of storytellers may be set up. This can take the form of a residential workshop where the storytellers tell a number of stories which are then documented for use as reading material. Since residential workshops are sometimes expensive, it is often more advisable to arrange for the storytellers to come for a series of workshops in the evenings.

This latter pattern has been adopted by Tanzania, for example. This is what was used for the development and production of the *Books by People* programme, from which many reading books were produced. In fact, five pamphlets were produced from the very first seminar-workshop. These contained 28 stories and 59 proverbs.

Radio Recordings

In Mali, the entire collection of oral literature that had been recorded by the Malian National Broadcasting Station was taped and transcribed in order to produce textbooks and supplementary reading materials for the PL programmes.

The epics, sketches, riddles, tales, etc. which were collected in this way resulted in 59 booklets.

Full-scale Writers' Workshops

Several variants of these are used in a number of countries such as Zambia, Nigeria, Tanzania, India and Kenya. The nature of the workshops varies according to the country. The following types of workshop have been identified:

i. This is the type of workshop in which talents, skills and experience are pooled for a limited period to produce a certain number of books. This entails involving all the local resources available for the production. Experts on content, language experts, technical services, political and administrative officials, editors, printers,

illustrators and anyone who can contribute to the production of good material, are invited to take part.
Any voluntary associations interested in the production of reading materials for neo-literates are also invited.
In the type of workshop prevalent in *Tanzania*, the objective is the immediate production of brochures or booklets by the end of the workshop period.

ii. *Zambia* has a series of similar workshops designed on a slightly different pattern. Each workshop is structured in three distinct phases.

Phase 1 - *A preliminary meeting* where the form and content of the PL materials are discussed and decided upon.

Phase 2 - This is the *active writing phase* in which the workshop concerns itself with writing the actual texts of the materials for neo-literates.

Phase 3 - In this final session the material is thoroughly *examined* and *edited* so that the material is ready for printing.

iii. In other cases, the manuscripts are first prepared by the authors. A panel of experts is then invited to revise these manuscripts for publication (e.g. Jamaica).

iv. *India* presents another kind of pattern where the workshops assume a different emphasis. Each such workshop has two very clear objectives:

- to train potential writers of material for neo-literates from among the instructors, extension workers and development agents; the workshop is also open for any other people who may be interested in participating;

- to prepare manuscripts that cater to the specific needs and requests of the neo-literates.

v. The *French-speaking* countries of *Africa* also adopt their own pattern for the production of neo-literate materials within the PL programme. In these countries, the workshops take the form of non-formal sessions in which professionals and neo-literates are brought together. The main features of these workshops are:

- the neo-literates are directly involved in various workshop tasks;
- some of the neo-literates are stimulated to write articles for the rural press;
- some are encouraged to prepare reading materials or even to write textbooks for other neo-literates.

Some actual examples of these can be seen in:

a. *Mali* - Here, such cooperation has led to the revision of brochures which had already been written. These brochures deal with various extension themes, geography, history and grammar, as well as biology, physics and chemistry and they explain various new scientific terms, the knowledge of which is important for neo-literates.

b. *Burkina Faso* - Here can be found what are known as *writing committees*. The committees, which include neo-literates, meet to edit texts for those of their countrymen who have limited access to reading materials.

c. *Senegal* - Senegal's approach is similar. However, instead of having writing committees, they set up what they call the *linguistic unit* and also the *production unit*, in order to create a literate environment. The two units are responsible for preparing and publishing official documents and texts on health, reading and arithmetic for neo-literates.

vi. In various other countries, individuals and groups are motivated to produce reading material of different types. A popular strategy adopted to ensure high motivation is the institution of *literacy competitions*.

These competitions are organized on a regular basis to enable those in charge of the PL programme to dicover talented individuals who are then further encouraged to write.

In many countries, International Literacy Day (i.e. 8th September) is celebrated each year as the climax of such activities. On these occasions, promising writers are awarded prizes for their endeavours.

In the *Guidebook for Development and Production of Materials for Neo-literates*, produced by ACCU, the stages shown on p. 91 have been set out for the systematic training of writers, illustrators and producers of neo-literate materials through workshops, which should be organized under the guidance of experienced specialists on curriculum development and material production.

STAGES OF TRAINING FOR WRITERS AND ILLUSTRATORS

i. A general introduction of the writers and illustrators to the target group. This can cover:
    a. socio-economic problems of the target group
    b. the role of education in solving at least some of the problems
    c. group dynamics
    d. the importance of neo-literate materials
    e. information about resources and resource agencies.

    It is desirable for the writers and the illustrators to be taken to the actual places where the neo-literates live. This brings them closer to the real conditions of the target group and aids them in modifying their ideas.

ii. After the field trip, the material producers should be exposed to talks on the various topics to be covered by specialists in the area so that the information they get will be technically correct.

iii. A detailed discussion on how to write for the neo-literate should be organized. This discussion should cover the criteria for such writing, e.g. selection of vocabulary, length of sentences, organization of materials under headings and sub-headings, readability and clarity of content, importance of visual aids, etc.

iv. The participants are then asked to prepare manuscripts on different topics (the illustrator here preparing the appropriate illustrations) which reflect actual living conditions.

v. After the preparation of the manuscript, the writers/illustrators meet again so that their work can be read, discussed and modified in accordance with the norms indicated in the list of criteria and technical information provided.

vi. The manuscript is revised and a limited number of copies then printed. These are then evaluated in both structured and unstructured situations. This is the field testing stage.

vii. The materials can then be revised, reprinted and used.

viii. Another evaluation may be necessary to determine any further improvement which may be needed.[10]

Other Alternative Arrangements for the Development and Publication of Textbooks and Supplementary Materials

Numerous other examples and variations are available in other parts of the world:

India - In India, the government has created *Writers' Guilds* and *Cooperatives*, as well as *National Book Trusts,* to promote the publication of reading materal for neo-literates. To enable these new structures to operate effectively and realize the objectives for which they were set up, the following steps have also been taken:

- a number of State Resource Centres have been set up;
- regular national competitions for authors and publishers have been instituted;
- the bulk purchase of books for libraries and literacy programmes has been introduced;
- the prices of booklets have been fixed by the state to ensure that all neo-literates get them at the approved prices;
- subsidies are paid to the printing houses to cover printing costs in order to keep the prices of books as low as possible.

These measures have been very effective, and by 1985, 24 competitions had been held. During these competitions, 897 books, produced in various languages, won awards.

Jamaica - In Jamaica, a large-scale competition was organized in "Popular Literature" in 1975. This was sponsored by UNESCO/UNDP, in collaboration with JA-

MAL (Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy).

The aim was to provide **current, relevant** and **entertaining** reading material that would stimulate a wider section of the population to read for enjoyment. This project was given the special name FULFIL, which is an abbreviation of the full name: Follow-Up Literature For Individual Learners.

Entry to the special competition was open to individuals and groups according to certain rules and specifications.

Two categories of literature were selected. These were:

a. the narrative - under the theme of "Unsung Heroes", these were narratives about people who made useful contributions to the development of life in Jamaican towns, in rural areas and at the village level, but about whom little was known.

b. the short story - with essay or comic-strip format, these were stories with an element of excitement and adventure or romance.

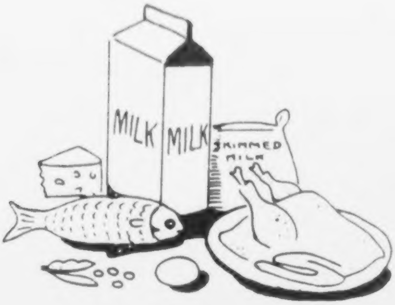
Some of these books provided valuable information on culture, sports, civic duties and other subjects of general interest, while others were published as novels and story books. These books made a significant impact, in that a tremendous amount of original information was generated, which enriched the existing literature, and new talents and potential writers were discovered in the process.

Following pages:
Illustration 4. Sample pages from JAMAL Supplementary Readers (Jamaica)

THE FOOD OUR BODY NEEDS

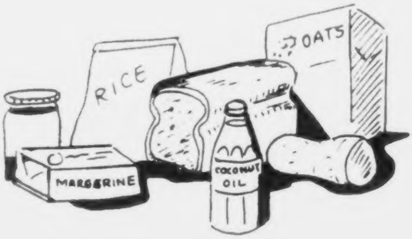
Our bodies have certain needs. Some foods supply some needs and other foods supply other needs. Let us look at these foods.

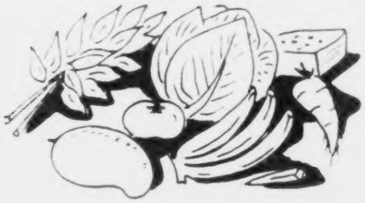
These foods help us to


MILK
MILK
SKIMMED MILK

- grow
and to
build our
bodies.

- have energy


OATS
RICE
MARGARINE
COCONUT OIL



- protect us from disease.

We must eat food from the three food groups every day.

SAVING

We all need to save.

We need to save for the "rainy day".

Some of us save.....
..to send our children to school.
..to have something to fall back on when we are sick.
..for our old age to buy our own homes.

There are many ways in which we can save.

We can save by......
.. joining a "Partner"
.. joining a Co-Operative
.. putting a little money in a bank or building society each week. We can also save by taking out an insurance policy which takes care of our family if we die.

The more money we save is the more money we have to invest. The more money we have to invest is the better off we and our fellow Jamaicans will be.

To encourage the winners:

- some of the winning entries were published in book form;
- others were printed in the *Let's Read* series;
- the remaining winning entries were presented on the radio as short sketches.

We have presented above a large variety of approaches to the preparation of the content and publication of Books and other Supplementary Reading Materials for neo-literates. Practitioners will almost certainly already be familiar with most of these techniques and strategies. They are, however, encouraged to study them carefully and use them as inspiration for new ideas which may be suitable for their own groups.

Distribution and Dissemination

Textbooks and supplementary reading materials are by their nature usually designed for PL programmes. This means that these books and other printed materials should be made available to the PL classes or learning groups, wherever they exist. This should be done at the appropriate times when the books are needed.

The needs of neo-literates who are not members of specific PL classes should nevertheless be borne in mind. This means that apart from the PL classes, provision should be made to get books to points where they will be easily accessible to those interested in them.

Where books are intended for PL programmes, it is essential to ensure that all these textbooks and supplementary reading materials arrive on time. It is very frustrating for learners if the required books are not available at the beginning of the programme. Literacy workers should try to prevent such a situation from happening, as it may discourage neo-literates by interfering with their programme and thus dampening their enthusiasm.

Literacy workers living in rural areas are advised TO MAKE SURE THAT THEY PLACE ORDERS FOR THEIR BOOKS AND OTHER READING MATERIALS IN GOOD TIME, SO AS TO AVOID SUCH PROBLEMS.

As we have found with other aspects of the PL programmes, there are several different ways of distributing PL material, as can be seen from the studies which have been carried out in various countries.

An important factor in the development of delivery systems was the attempt by the Government of *India* to appoint two national level committees to suggest appropriate forms of delivery for PL programmes. The committees have suggested various channels of delivery such as Village Continuing Education Centres, Continuing Education and Adult Education Centres, Village and Mobile Libraries, adult classes leading to formal school certificates, vocational and skill-training centres, classes run by volunteer students, etc.

Similarly, lifelong education centres in *Thailand*, nonformal education centres in the *Philippines* and rural libraries in many countries are serving as delivery centres.

Mobile libraries are a good and effective way of distributing neo-literate materials as well as helping the neo-literates with their learning programmes. The lending of materials to neo-literates should be encouraged.[11]

TO SELL OR NOT TO SELL

a. Some countries do not sell textbooks and supplementary reading materials to neo-literates. They supply the material free of charge as an incentive for neo-literates to continue learning.

b. In some cases, these books are kept in the village libraries so that villagers can borrow them.
N.B. The reasons for the free issue of books are twofold:
- to motivate neo-literates to continue to use their new skills and to improve upon them;
- to ensure that no neo-literate is denied the privilege of benefiting from the PL programme for financial reasons.

c. However, in other countries, neo-literates are made to pay a nominal charge for textbooks and supplementary materials supplied to them.

d. Elsewhere, textbooks and supplementary materials are sold to neo-literates at the production cost. The materials are sold for the following reasons:
- It is a fact that many people do not value what they get free. In order for them to value the material, a charge is made, no matter how small.
- The charge made for textbooks and supplementary reading materials is either:
  - ploughed back into subsidizing more publications; or
  - utilized for the cost of transporting the books from a central point to the classes.

Distribution is not only a question of **how** to operate, but often also of **what** to distribute. Despite great encouragement and the existence of local talent - even of virtuosity - the publication of texts and books in local languages (which are predominantly the languages of literacy), is well below the enormous potential market represented by the constantly increasing number of neo-literates. National publishers do not find the production of reading material in local languages profitable. In some of these countries the preparation, publication and distribution of books for PL programmes is heavily subsidized by the state, and in some cases the government takes over the entire cost. In view of this, the question is: TO SELL OR NOT TO SELL?

The situation regarding the sale (or non-sale) of neo-literate reading materials is outlined in the list of points given on p. 98.

Evaluation of Printed Media

At the PL stage, the nature and quality of the material becomes all the more important because of its growing role in the learning-teaching process. The role of the teacher/animator is increasingly supplemented and partly replaced by the use of printed material, frequently in conjunction with modern and/or traditional media. It is, therefore, important that appropriate techniques are utilized to evaluate the material so that new readers can take maximum advantage of it. Certain criteria must be applied in evaluating all the different categories of printed material. The most important criteria are:

a. relevance of content
b. structure of content
c. clarity of content
d. level of language difficulty
e. size of print
f. clarity and appropriateness of illustrations.

Along with these general criteria, other criteria used relate more to the specific form of reading/visual material. For example, in evaluating a book conceived as supplementary reading material, the following criteria may be added:

a. title of the book
b. types of words and sentences used
c. complexity of technical knowledge
d. style of presentation
e. quality of illustrations.

As regards posters, additional aspects to be assessed are:

a. quality and size of the illustrations
b. immediacy of the written message
c. the colour scheme chosen
d. the layout used in the poster or chart, etc.

This type of evaluation is carried out by experts in the field of development and production of materials for neo-literates. For the technical evaluation they devise check lists and grading systems which help to determine whether the printed media conform to the basic norms essential for the success of such materials. In addition to this, these materials also need to be tested by the target learners/readers for both readability and acceptability. This is extremely important, since technical evaluation by the producers alone does not always measure the suitability of the material. Conscientious producers of materials have devised techniques of **testing** the material with the participation of the learners. Most of the good material available undergoes several stages of testing, involving not only the experts, but also the neo-literates themselves. As a rule, all material should be **pre-tested** with the learners before it is finalized. Evaluation of the material is a continuous process. Even when material is in use practitioners should continue to elicit reactions and get **feedback** from the users so that the material is **constantly reviewed** and **occasionally revised**.

THE RURAL PRESS OR COMMUNITY PRESS

The name *Rural Press* or *Community Press* is a generic term which covers all written communication meant to convey general information to a large public of which neo-literates constitute the core. It is intended to disseminate news, to instruct and to entertain the people in the community or rural area. Printed Media falling within this set of LS are rural newspapers, wall-newspapers, community newspapers, leaflets and periodicals. They are regarded as a major tool for extending fundamental knowledge and information to the people, particularly in the rural areas, and also in the deprived sections of the urban population.

Since, in most countries, rural newspapers are written with the neo-literate in mind, and since these newspapers are readily accessible to neo-literates, they constitute an important source of reading material, and are widely used as a LS.

Roland Schreyer, one of the Unesco experts on the Rural Press, stresses two important advantages which the rural press and wall-newspapers etc. have over books and audiovisual media. He asserts that:

a. The rural press tends to be more **topical** than books because
  - it provides more current information;
  - it encourages introspection and reflection;
  - it is more lively, because it deals with events of the moment;
  - it is more personalized, since readers can send in their own views;
  - it becomes a powerful instrument for dialogue, by creating an effective avenue for exchange of views and establishing contact between readers and editors and among readers themselves.

b. It tends to make a **better impact** than the audiovisual media, by virtue of the durability of the printed word. It is, therefore, generally regarded as superior to the audiovisual media because:
  - the newspaper can be read over and over again and passed on to others, giving it greater power to generate informed discussion;
  - the neo-literate can buy it, keep it and work through it at his own pace;
  - it constitutes a reliable basis for use as a training tool.[12]

Evolution and Characteristics of Rural and Community Newspapers as a LS

Rural newspapers have evolved not because they are intended as a journalistic press; they are not merely another newspaper. They have evolved:

- mainly as a response to the urgent need for simple, appropriate reading material, with the capacity to reflect aspects of day-to-day local news;
- as special innovations launched fairly recently to support the various campaigns against illiteracy.

The rural press bears certain **characteristics**.

- The most common feature is the periodicity of the papers:
    - with very few exceptions, they do not normally appear daily or even weekly;
    - most of the papers come out monthly, or irregularly, although there are a few cases of bi-weekly papers.
- Most of them aim primarily at contributing to PL and lifelong education;
- Some aim at contributing to development in the widest sense, functioning as vehicles for popular expression, using participatory communication techniques to motivate interaction and feedback on local and national issues;

- Many of the papers have a very limited public, with a circulation ranging from 1,000 to 10,000 copies per issue. The pioneers of the rural press - *Kibaru* in *Mali* and

Elimu Haina Mwisho in *Tanzania* - have a circulation of 25,000 and 100,000 respectively. Similarly, in *India*, *Indonesia* and *Thailand* in particular, which are densely populated, the circulation is correspondingly higher.

- Most of the rural newspapers have a tabloid format, their size varying from that of a village leaflet to up to four pages. They seldom go beyond this size.

Organization of the Paper

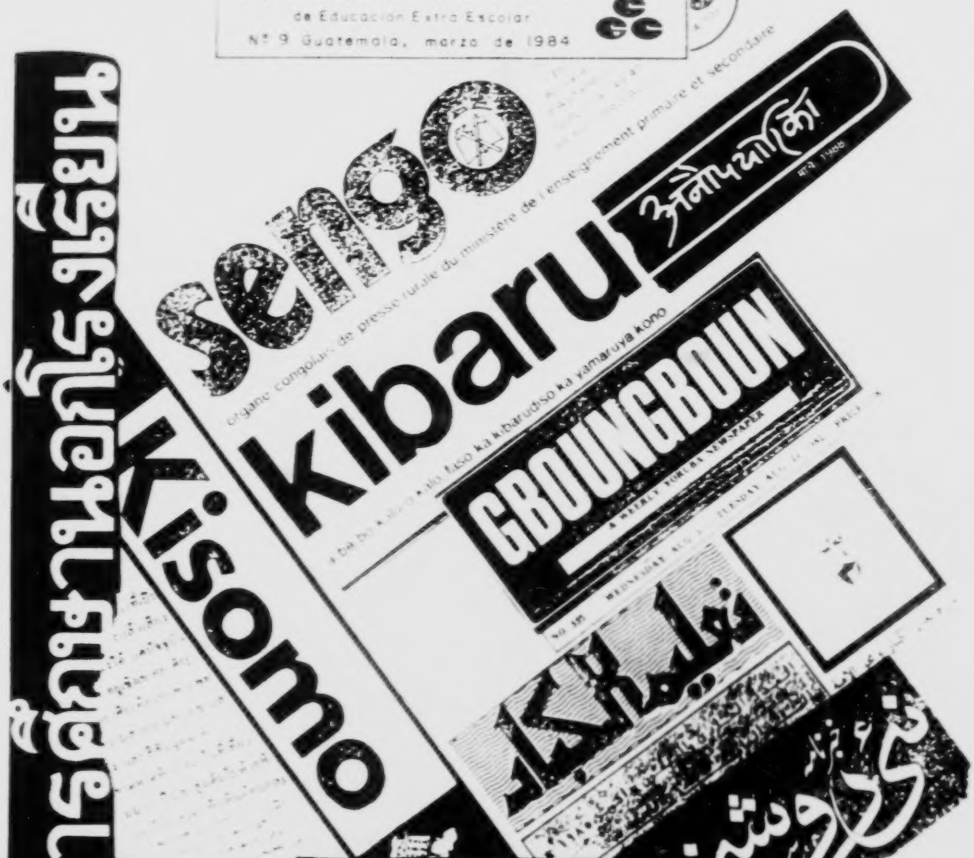
It has been observed that many of the papers have the tendency to devote a fixed page to each thematic field. A typical example of a regular pattern adopted in *Tanzania* is cited below:

> The *front page* carries national and sometimes international or local news which is of general interest to its readers. An attempt is always made to interpret the news and relate it to local needs. The *second page* carries news from regions covered by the newspaper. The news on this page reports on development activities with a view to encourage and stimulate readers to similar undertakings. The *third page* carries additional news of general interest, letters to the editor, commentaries and announcements. The *fourth page* is known as a "Do it yourself", "Improve yourself" page, e.g. "How to grow better cotton", "How to make a chair", "How to make a wheelbarrow", "How to apply fertilizers", etc.[13]

Opposite page:
Illustration 5. Titles of
Rural Newspapers.

El Informador Rural

Organo divulgativo de la Junta Nacional
de Educación Extra Escolar
Nº 9 Guatemala, marzo de 1984


sengo
organe congolais de presse rurale du ministère de l'enseignement primaire et secondaire
अनौपचारिका
kibaru
kalo kalo faso ka kibarudiso ka yamaruya kono
GBOUNGBOUN
A WEEKLY YORUBA NEWSPAPER
Kisomo
สารการศึกษานอกโรงเรียน
BOMA

As a further example, *Kibaru*, a popular rural newspaper in *Mali*, always devotes page two to readers' letters. Since this is known to all those familiar with the paper, it encourages neo-literates to write and send their views to the paper.

Let's read, the Jamaican new readers' magazine, carries different subjects from time to time but some of its features are constant, such as "JAMAL News", "Phonics" and "Puzzles". Besides these, frequent features are National Heritage, Hurricane Warnings, Our West Indian Neighbours, Do-It-Yourself, and First-Aid Tips.[14]

Language of Publication

The choice of language for the newspaper is very significant in the context of a multi-lingual situation.

The three major alternative approaches observed in the studies are reported below. The decision to adopt any one or a combination of these depends to a large extent on:

- the language pattern of the country;
- whether the paper is for village, district or national distribution;
- the objectives of the paper.

The alternative patterns noted in the choice of language are:

a. choice of a strictly local language, in order to reach local people living in a small area most effectively;

b. choice of more widely used language in the hope of reaching a larger audience and creating a more widely spread information system. This choice is sometimes combined with a periodic provision of a résumé of information/articles, etc. in one or more of the less widely spread languages;

c. use of one of the metropolitan languages, notably English, French and Spanish, so as to cut across local language barriers. The résumé formula is applied here as well in one of the regional and/or vehicular languages.

Of these three alternatives, the first two are most widely used.

Objectives and Content

In dealing with the objectives of the rural newspapers, it is worth mentioning some of the earlier points made, namely that:

- the main concern of the rural press is not to embark upon a commercial venture; its greater objective is to contribute to the education and training of local people, particularly in the rural areas;
- it is intended to establish a dialogue between the neo-literates and officials in public, semi-public and private organizations engaged in activities affecting their lives and interests;
- it is also intended to establish a dialogue between the rural and the urban populations.

This dialogue is maintained through writing reports on the developmental work which has already been done and which is expected to be done by the various departments or organizations, so that the people are kept informed about matters vital to them.

The readers comment on the work or issue in question and ask questions to which the officials are expected to reply.

A reader may also report an event or experience which calls for a response from someone who is not necessarily a neo-literate.

- However, the ultimate goal for the use of the rural press as a LS is to support the overall goals of PL and CE referred to earlier, namely: **Retention, Continuation** and **Application**, which are achieved in the following ways:

RETENTION and CONTINUATION

The specific objectives of rural newspapers satisfy these goals in that they:

- serve as a medium of expression for individual readers and their local communities;
- encourage the habit of newspaper reading;
- consolidate the knowledge and skills which have been acquired by neo-literates;
- arouse the desire for more reading;
- provide enjoyment through reading.

APPLICATION

Rural newspapers ensure:
- awareness of national goals and developmental plans;
- participation in economic and social development;

- development of national culture, language and religion;
- availability of an instrument for dialogue;
- conservation of oral traditions;
- contribution to the development of a written culture.

The **content** of the rural press may be broadly classified into four major areas:

a. News
News about local, regional, national and international events. Some of the papers do not cover all these aspects but restrict themselves mainly to local news. The local news is of a social and political nature and also deals with matters of local economic concern. They sometimes include available timetables for radio broadcasts of literacy and PL programmes.

b General Information
Articles regarding health, nutrition and child care, religion, national affairs, customs, history, geography, how to write a letter, and other articles aimed at helping the reader equip himself better to become more and more self-reliant. Sometimes a radio broadcast is printed in the paper.

c Vocational and Technological Information
Articles mainly on agriculture, agricultural machines, hydraulics and other aspects related to economic developments. Tanzania, for example, has a "Do-it-yourself" page.

Following pages:
Illustration 6. Sample pages from *El Informador Rural*, Guatemala, No. 8, October 1983. The heading means "Take care with insecticide sprays".

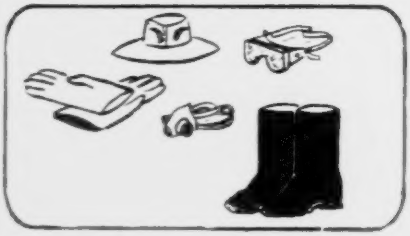
Agricultura

Cuidado con los insecticidas que se fumigan

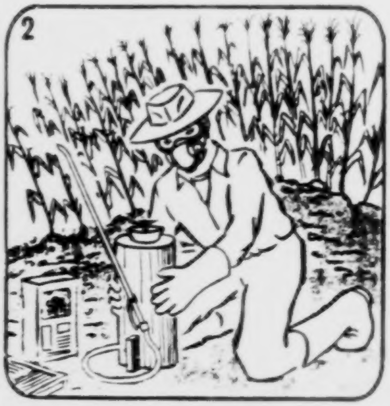
Los insecticidas son peligrosos, porque al usarlos mal hay peligro de sufrir un envenenamiento.

Por eso, para usar bien los insecticidas que se fumigan, es necesario tomar en cuenta algunos cuidados, como los siguientes:

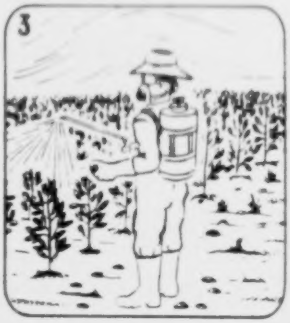
1
Cuando se echa insecticida a las plantas, la persona debe usar botas de hule, guantes, sombrero, mascarilla y anteojos, porque así se evita que el veneno entre al cuerpo, bien sea por la piel, por la boca, por la nariz, o que haga daño a los ojos.



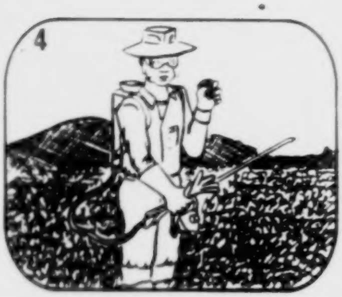
2
Para revolver el insecticida, debe tenerse cuidado que la bomba de fumigar esté en buenas condiciones, y que la persona encargada ya sepa hacer este trabajo.



3
La persona que echa el insecticida debe colocarse de espaldas a la dirección del aire y echar el insecticida en la misma dirección que lleva el aire, para evitar que le caiga a la persona que está fumigando.



4
No se debe comer, tomar líquidos, ni fumar mientras esté fumigando, para evitar que el insecticida entre por la boca.



EDUCACION EXTRA ESCOLAR

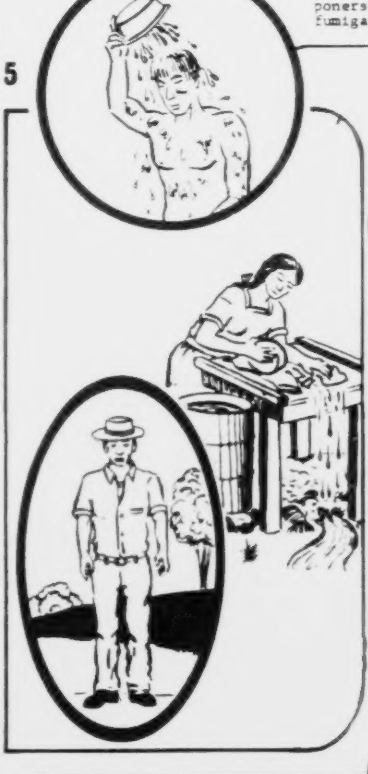
Agricultura

EL INFORMADOR RURAL

Página 9 Guatemala, octubre de 1983

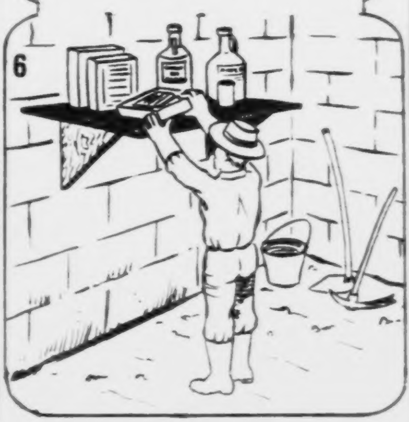
5

Después que se ha hecho el trabajo de fumigar la persona se debe bañar con agua y jabón, y ponerse ropa limpia. La ropa que se usó para fumigar debe lavarse luego.



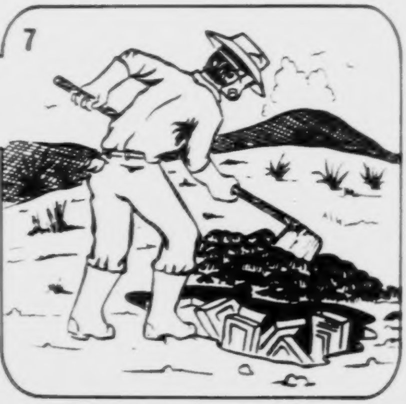
6

Lo que haya sobrado de insecticida se debe guardar en los mismos envases que venía y se debe dejar en un lugar donde los niños no lo puedan tocar.



7

Cuando ya los envases de insecticida no sirven, se deben quemar o enterrar, para evitar que los niños puedan tocarlos.



Si la persona que hace el trabajo de fumigar toma en cuenta estas recomendaciones se evitará muchos problemas y protegerá a su familia y vecinos.

d. Other

Material for entertainment, such as stories and puzzles to be solved, are also included.

Considering the content and objectives, it would appear that the rural press has a great potential to serve its major clientele, the neo-literates, in many useful ways. This potential should be explored in a spirit of CREATIVITY and INNOVATIVENESS.

Production

The actual mechanism of producing a newspaper involves several stages including preliminary work, certain techniques necessary for obtaining the articles, and the actual production and publication of the paper.

Preparation of the Paper

The following preliminary steps are required to make publication initially possible:

- soliciting of articles through personal contact and correspondence and collecting the articles when written;
- selection of articles suitable for publication;
- designing the illustrations;
- editing the material collected, in particular with regard to the level of language, length and order of sentences, selection of typeface, etc.
- preparing clean handwritten, typed or typeset copies;
- printing the paper for distribution;

- publication and distribution to the target audience.

Techniques for obtaining articles

As can be seen in the preceding section, the publication of any paper begins first with the collection of articles, without which it is impossible to publish. We shall examine some approaches and techniques adopted to ensure that articles are always available for the rural newspaper.

1. *The Writers' Workshop*

This is a technique adopted widely in Africa. The organization of a writers' workshop involves bringing together:

- adult educators;
- other experts from both governmental and non-governmental organizations (NGO's);
- NGO's interested in the production of reading materials for neo-literates.

This technique helps to attain a wide coverage and varied input from the many diverse fields from which neo-literates come. The task of the practitioners is to use their imagination creatively to widen the net and to get local people involved in making contributions.

2. *Setting up Editorial Committees*

This simply involves:

- setting up an editorial office;

- putting together a committee to examine the articles received;
- editing the articles - in particular, checking that spelling conforms to official norms.

3. *Use of Local Agents*

This calls for the participation of local people in collecting articles and sending them to a publication centre. It requires:

- setting up agents working at the community or village level who collect materials which meet **their needs and interests**;
- getting them to send the articles to the publication centre.

4. *Establishment of a Network of Communicators*

This is an improvement upon the arrangements in (3) above and involves setting up a network of correspondents who generally tend to be:

- teachers in the formal school system;
- animators in the field of agriculture and health etc.;
- literacy instructors and facilitators.

- All these correspondents come from the local area and live there.
- They have profound knowledge of the interests, the culture, the language and the concerns of the people.
- They collect articles or translate news relating to development.
- They send these news items to the editor of the paper.

- Some of them collect the publication and bring it back to their local areas and villages for distribution.
- All these people work voluntarily for the paper at a local level. The main advantage of this arrangement is that a constant and fairly permanent link is established between:
  - the readers;
  - the editorial staff and office;
  - the paper itself.

This list of techniques is not exhaustive and prescriptive. Other approaches can be devised and attempted.

Production of the Paper

The actual production of the paper poses a common problem for most of the countries where studies have been carried out. It is not possible for them to achieve the ideal of possessing their own printing press. Different approaches have therefore been adopted as alternatives. These include the use of:

- offset printing equipment;
- the spirit duplicator;
- the linograph (the silk screen method), mostly suitable for the village press only, a method which is at present being used extensively in many countries);

- wall-newspapers, whereby the wall is sometimes simply painted black and news items are written directly on the wall.

As an alternative, some countries have opted for:

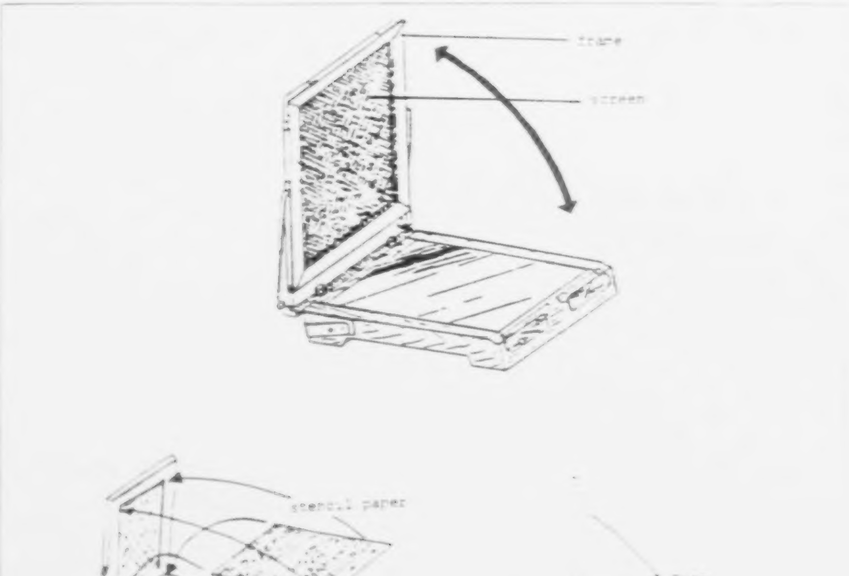
- sub-contracting the printing to national private companies.

The linograph or silk-screen method, mentioned above, is a fairly simple alternative to adopt. This craft tool has been used most widely in *Niger* where **neo-literates themselves** actively participate in the production of the village paper, assisted by the rural animators and the local literacy instructors. The neo-literates also serve on the editorial committee.

This technique is recommended, because it uses mainly local material except for the stencil and ink (for which there have now been some suggestions made regarding alternative production). However, there are a few drawbacks involved:

- the cost of paper and stencil can sometimes become rather high;
- it is not possible to produce pictures/photographs;
- it is difficult to engrave illustrations on the stencil;
- the format itself imposes some limitations as regards presentation.

Opposite page:
Illustration 7. Linograph (Silk-Screen) Printing: illustration by the Japan Sotoshu Relief Committee reproduced in the *Guidebook for Development and Production of Materials for Neo-Literates*. Tokyo: ACCU, 1985, p. 65.


frame
screen
stencil paper
paper
push
ink
roller
open
Tiger.

Coverage and Distribution

In terms of the coverage of the newspapers and the distribution system used, interesting variations are found from one country to another. Some of the patterns emerging from the studies were:

- the existence of a Decentralized Rural Press, as in *Niger*, where the system rests on village-based papers (of which more than one hundred were produced) with regional stratification (e.g. *Jine Koy Yan)* leading to one national paper *Gangaa*;[15]
- the existence, as in *Tanzania*, of regional/zonal newspapers. Some seven regional papers are produced. Of these, the one with the highest circulation and which also enjoys enormous prestige, is the popular *Elimu Haina Mwisho,* serving the lake zone of the north-west;
- the national level pattern which prevails in many countries. In such cases, provision is generally made to reserve space for regional and local events and issues. Examples are found in *Burkina Faso* (formerly Upper Volta), *Jamaica, Mali* and *Senegal*;
- *India* presents a different but interesting pattern:
  - 8,000 small newspapers, operating mainly in the rural areas and covering rural themes. These newspapers include:

    dailies of tabloid size;
    weeklies and bi-weeklies.
  - 250 farming periodicals, which make a considerable contribution towards the growth of journalism in India (190 are in Hindi).

- monthly news bulletins and sporadically produced periodicals for neo-literates and others with more limited reading ability;
- wall-newspapers: this form of newspaper is used exclusively as a LS; it may appear concurrently with one or several other papers.

For example, the Directorate of Advertizing and Visual Publicity of the Government of India publishes *Hamara Desh* ("Our Country") on a bi-weekly basis in Hindi. The monthly wall-newspaper in Malayalam produced by the Kerala State Resource Centre in multicolour offset is very popular in the rural areas.

In other places, walls are painted black so that important news items can be written on them.[16]

As regards the distribution, it should be noted that only a very limited audience is reached through bookshops. Supplying subscribers by post, which might have constituted the primary mode of dissemination for the rural papers, is, given the weakness of the communications network in many countries, used only by a few papers. On the whole, most if not all papers have great difficulty in organizing their distribution.

Some solutions which have been found to the problem of distribution in various countries are given below:

- the use of normal administrative structures, the cooperation of agricultural, health and community extension workers:
  - to ensure circulation of the papers;
  - to organize individual or collective subscription and payment;

  - to ensure the organization and functioning of group reading and reading groups/clubs;
  - to gauge the impact of the paper on the target-population.

- the use of all available literacy structures. These include:
  - PL classes;
  - rural libraries;
  - lifelong education centres, etc.

  In *Jamaica*, the national magazine for new readers, *Let's Read*, is distributed by special delivery from JAMAL's headquarters to the regional offices around the island. The regional officers distribute it to programme managers in the parishes who then take copies to the classes. News, articles and other contributions for the next issue are collected at the same time as the paper is delivered.

- the use of a national distribution centre which sends the papers to the various points where they can be collected. This can be a special office set up solely for this purpose or, as is the case of *Kibaru* in *Mali*, an existing structure can be used, such as the Ministry of Information, which is responsible for the distribution of other national newspapers;
- restriction of some of the papers to certain regions or zones of the country or even to a smaller unit, such as the district. In a few cases, some rural newspapers are distributed only at the village level.

In order to achieve a better impact and to improve their system of distribution, many countries are using a combination of these approaches.

Management and Control

The publication of the rural newspapers is managed in a variety of ways depending on the country. Some of the modes of management are:

- A government ministry or department manages and controls the publication of the paper: where this applies, the Ministry of Information or a Department of Extension or Rural Development is given the responsibility;
- Private voluntary associations and religous organizations play this role in some of the countries;
- An independent committee is set up to manage the paper(s);
- The responsibility is assigned to Institutes of Adult Education.

Selected Strengths and How they Have Been Achieved[17]

Findings from studies and discussions with specialists indicate that the rural press owes its success, at least in part, to the conjunction or interaction of certain factors, of which the main ones may be summarized as follows:

a. The collective nature of the editing and its openness to all of the interests and disciplines present in the rural world on the one hand (literacy, agriculture, cooperation, health, livestock breeding, waterways and forests, etc.), and urban community life on the other. A paper is rarely the work of a single individual or even of one agency or ministry. It is the fruit of a collective effort in which several sectors of the community collaborate. It is this communal activity which no doubt plays a large part in the success of a paper.

b. The participation of the readers themselves in defining the content. This is obtained in a number of ways:

   1. by setting up a network of mediators chosen from the local people, who represent the different opinions of the readers;
   2. by encouraging neo-literates to write their own articles, either individually or in special production workshops;
   3. by the diversification of headings and the specialization of some of them.

c. The establishment of a meaningful and permanent dialogue within those areas most affecting the daily problems of the readers, e.g. agriculture, health, family economy, education. A section several columns long is often devoted to readers' letters.

d. The contribution of the rural press towards the development of a language norm, a supra-dialect variant in countries entering a state of literacy. In spite of this, however, the paper accords each contributor great freedom in giving his article the local colour which is often its strength and shows the author's strong links with his local culture.

e. The accessibility of the rural press to a secondary public as well as the primary target group of neo-literates. Most of the papers cater for town-dwellers, for young pupils who have left formal school and even for cadres who have recently been made "literate" in the national languages. The collective reading sessions organized by some subscribers enable even illiterates to benefit from the content of the paper.

f. The non-commercial nature of the newspaper, which enables it to become a means of identification for new readers who have been involved in the production process. It is, as it were, exchanged against a contribution which is modest but necessary for a minimal attachment to be created and for the material costs to be covered. Furthermore, various schemes have emerged to help particularly needy farmers, such as collective reading and shared subscription, for example. Such systems obviously preclude an exact equation of the number of copies with the number of readers. One estimate that has been put forward is that the number of readers is ten times that of the buyers.

g. The fact that the rural press does not operate alone but is situated within a supportive network. As has already been emphasized, there is interaction amongst the different LS. Thus the rural press reinforces and is reinforced by other PL media, such as rural libraries, educational radio, correspondence courses, traditional media (use of games, songs and drama), etc. In *Mali*, the rural animation radio programme supports *Kibaru* by devoting a weekly half-hour broadcast to reading letters and answers for which there was no room in the paper, and, when time permits, reading one or two of its articles. In addition, the daily radio education broadcasts are designed in conjunction with the rural paper.

In *Tanzania*, the educational radio programme broadcasts articles from the rural press and/or designs programmes based on various other articles; rural libraries keep and lend out papers to library users, and rural newspapers are distributed in the Folk Development Colleges where they are read by course participants.

h. The attempts being made by some countries to develop an economically viable rural press:

   1. the creation (in *Zambia*, for example) of a modular offset printing facility servicing several satellite papers in a single region, with each paper having access to its own editorial, photo-journalistic and layout services;
   2. experimentation (as in *Kenya* and *Indonesia*) with a mobile printing micro-unit;
   3. the pooling of resources and the sharing of printing units between the rural press and other LS *Tanzania*, *Togo*).

Opposite page:
Illustration 8. Two items from the New Readers' page of the *Daily Gleaner* (Jamaica). The text is reproduced at its actual size.

BUSTA DAY

Last Friday was observed as a public holiday in Hanover. The holiday was observed to honour the memory of Sir Alexander Bustamante in the parish where he was born.

A State function was held at the Lucea Square. The Prime Minister gave the main address. Lady Bustamante was present at the function.

Several other activities are planned for Hanover as Jamaica continues to celebrate the centenary of Sir Alexander's birthday.

SCHOOL BUSES

Starting in March, there will be a special bus service for school-children. The buses will run on six routes in Kingston and St. Andrew. The fares will be twenty-five cents.

Although this new service is being provided, regular mini-bus services will still continueto carry school-children.

i. Recourse (as in *India*, *Mozambique* and the *Philippines*) to the blackboard newspaper in order to disseminate information, ease retention, and solve distribution and supply problems. The central blackboard gets its name from its location in the village square where a wall painted black is used to inform the neo-literates about international, national and local events.

j. Use of the circulation networks of the official national information newspapers to overcome certain of the distribution difficulties encountered by the rural press. In some cases, an entire page of such a paper is devoted to articles written by neo-literates, and is often accompanied by a photograph of the author (as in *Ethiopia*, for example). In *Jamaica*, the *Daily Gleaner*, which is the most widely distributed paper in the country, has donated a page twice monthly to JAMAL. The content of this New Readers' Page is a selection of news which is simplified and written in large type for easy reading by neo-literates. In *Togo*, a daily summary of news in the languages used for literacy is inserted in the Official National Newspaper. In *Mali*, a page of summaries in the literacy languages is inserted in the weekly edition of the national paper *l'Essor*.

k. The effort being made by several countries to find solutions for training deficiencies by adopting flexible and appropriate procedures, the most common being the organization of local/national short-term intensive seminars for the initial or subsequent training of writers and communicators.

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Chapter 4

The Use of Radio, TV and Audio-Visual Media as Learning Strategies

It is generally accepted that PL education should be promoted in two major ways, namely:

> **First**, through strengthening the reading, writing and numeracy skills acquired at the literacy level.
>
> **Second**, through participating in a range of available activities over and above those skills acquired at the literacy level, which have wider socio-cultural dimensions.[1]

To make this possible, a cultural environment needs to be set up whereby written texts can be linked to other communication media. Establishing this kind of mutually supportive network in which the effects of literacy can be felt in many different areas is essential for the success of a PL programme. The communication media discussed in this section include all those new electronic media and audio-visual aids that may be used to reach the neo-literate. Here, we shall consider media such as **Radio, Television, Audio** and **Video Tape Equipment, Films**, etc. The use of these modern media as educational devices has been found to be very successful in many of the countries in which case studies have been carried out.

Research has shown that for educational purposes, the communication media can be used as:

- channels for transmitting information (including those with specific educational content) to a given target population; and
- a means of establishing dialogue between producers and consumers. This dialogue is aimed at:
  - developing people's capacity for self-expression, either among themselves, and/or based on information passed on to them by the organization, and
  - sharpening their ability to assimilate the information given and to analyse and interpret it in terms of their own social and environmental needs.

The extent to which this aim is achieved strictly depends on:

- the scope of the PL and CE programmes; and
- the amount of planning which practitioners in the field devote to the use of these communication media as LS.

Characteristics of the Modern Media

The communication media (radio, TV, film, audio and video cassettes, etc.) have certain characteristics which we should bear in mind:

All forms of media have the tendency to:

- enable practitioners to undertake instruction or teaching on a massive scale;
- provide facilities for mass audiences throughout the whole country and sometimes even in other countries;
- provide any audience with the opportunity for informal learning;
- give practitioners the opportunity to promote education on a group basis.

It is necessary for practitioners to bear these points in mind because they define certain boundaries within which the strategies should be designed. Whenever any of the communication media are used as a LS the practitioner must first consider:

- the type of audience the programmes are designed to serve;
- the type and size of media selected;
- the manner in which the listening/viewing audience is prepared for the particular educational episode;

- the methods by which the educational outcome will be evaluated;
- the means practitioners plan to use for getting a feedback from the group of learners or listeners/viewers.

Because of the characteristics of the communication media, unless organizers plan carefully with the above points in mind, many good programmes may be transmitted with only little educational success. Therefore, whenever the communication media are to be used, careful planning and design are of vital importance.

In using these modern media, it should be remembered that the audience is very varied; the organizers may not even know some of the neo-literates who will be benefiting from the programmes. A media audience is a group which has dimensions different from those of the simple PL classes in which practitioners usually work with neo-literates.

The problem becomes even more serious when programmes broadcast nationally are used for neo-literate groups as learning opportunities. These may have other purposes apart from the educational content; i.e., the main purpose of some may not be educational at all, but practitioners may want to use them as such.

In these cases, there is the need for a deliberate effort on the part of the practitioners to prepare the neo-literates in advance for such programmes, and also to make sure that a well-planned dialogue follows the transmission in order to derive maximum benefit from the broadcasts. Even where the broadcasts are designed specifically for the neo-literates, the follow-up dialogue, discussion or required activity is an essential part of using the new media as a LS.

Although there are certain problems associated with using the modern electronic media for educational purposes, such media have a much greater potential than those which require users to be in close proximity to the materials through which information is being transmitted to them. This potential is therefore particularly useful for the promotion of PL and CE. Modern media can be used by individual learners as well as for occasional tutoring. They can reach a widely dispersed clientele, usually have a more "appealing" form of presentation than the "cold" printed media, and may be combined with any of the other LS.

Radio, which has been used extensively in most of the countries, has the following advantages:

- the human voice gives the presentation a certain liveliness that is lacking in the printed media discussed earlier;
- it creates the illusion of the speaker's presence;
- the combination of these two factors gives radio the power to present a convincing argument.

Added to these, **TV** and **Video** equipment

- possess an extremely penetrating and direct appeal;
- bring together sight and sound; and
- are able to capture actual activities and events as they occur, giving them the power of bringing reality closer to the viewer.

Particularly when designed specifically for educational purposes, these modern media may be used effectively to supplement all the other LS given in this handbook in several ways:

- electronic visual media can be integrated effectively with the activities of study and action groups;

- they can be combined with all the other LS which aim at the RETENTION, CONTINUATION and APPLICATION of the literacy skills acquired by neo-literates and hence serve as educational aids in different kinds of development or academically oriented programmes;
- they give support to the printed media through the use of written and graphic material on the screen.

Objectives of the Use of Modern Media as LS

To ensure **Retention** and **Continuation** of the literacy skills, the modern media are designed to:

- arouse interest in literacy and PL programmes;
- stimulate and promote effective participation in the national literacy and PL programmes;
- inform people about the structure, function and practice of the literacy and PL centres;
- stimulate and encourage neo-literates to come forward and join national and local PL programmes;
- assist neo-literates in consolidating and developing the knowledge they have acquired;
- reinforce the creation of a literate environment;
- enhance the ability of adults in areas such as rapid reading, methods of study and the use of leisure time;
- give adults the knowledge they need to obtain a primary or basic cycle diploma;

- contribute to the pedagogical and methodological training of teachers, particularly those with insufficient training.

To ensure **Application** of the literacy skills, so that the neo-literate can independently apply his education in other areas, the modern media are used to:

- educate neo-literates for fuller participation in developing PL education;
- support agricultural and health education in particular;
- create a dialogue among neo-literates, literacy instructors, extension workers, technicians etc.;
- integrate people more meaningfully into their communities;
- initiate and sustain group action within communities in areas of general concern, such as agriculture and housing;
- develop new attitudes in health and sanitation;
- raise the general cultural level of workers, farmers, housewives and other specific groups.

The features of new media as outlined above make them useful tools both for teaching and learning as well as for motivation in general. There are, for instance, five typical styles of broadcast:

- the lesson or talk
- the dialogue
- the interview
- the discussion, and
- dramatization.

These are different techniques which can be combined in order to present information in a vivid, critical and powerful manner, capturing the intellectual and emotional attention of listeners/viewers.

Examples of the Use of Modern Media as LS

Radio, TV, films and other audiovisual media are widely used in many countries as LS in the PL and CE programmes. Some of the ways in which they are used are presented below. These media are used by various countries:

- as a direct teaching method
- to aid teacher-training
- to stimulate learner motivation, and
- to increase public awareness of PL programmes.

In some programmes these objectives are combined.

Programmes Using Modern Media in Brazil[2]

In *Brazil,* the MOBRAL literacy movement used radio, television, films and other electronic media as LS in its PL and CE programmes as well as producing more extended lifelong education programmes. Specific programmes for which radio, TV, films, etc. have been extensively used were:

The Community Health Education Programme (PES)

This programme, which was aimed at Primary Health Care and the promotion of an increased general state of health of the average Brazilian was broadcast:

- by 300 radio stations
- in twenty-five states, and
- in three territories.

Radio was used effectively to reach as many members of the entire population as possible.

The Appropriate Technologies Programme

This was a basic education programme in which exhibitions, radio and television were used as LS:

- to demonstrate the application of selected techniques in daily life, and
- to instruct the populace in applying these techniques in order to provide practical and readily available solutions to the daily problems facing the more disadvantaged sectors of the Brazilian population.

Formal Education Through Radio and TV in Cuba

Cuba has a vast programme of follow-up activities for PL and CE, systematically organized for their neo-literate population. The programme has the following features:

The attainment levels of all neo-literates have been systematically standardized according to a grading scheme which is the same as that used for grading the textual material.

Links have been established between CE and the formal system to enable neo-literates to be integrated into the country's conventional education system at the appropriate points.

To achieve these plans, radio and TV have been commissioned to tackle the vital task of:

- ensuring the CE of workers and peasants, and
- raising the pedagogical and methodological levels of thousands of non-professional teachers who are recruited to assist in the implementation of this extensive programme.

New Media in Formal and Nonformal Education Programmes in Egypt[3]

In *Egypt*, radio, TV and other modern electronic media contribute to literacy and PL by presenting a number of programmes for illiterates, neo-literates and others. Besides programmes to support formal education and literacy work, radio broadcasts include a large number and wide variety of activities aimed at neo-literates and designed to inform them about simple facts in different fields. The following are outlines of a few programmes:

- *One Minute Please:* A daily one minute programme giving titbits of general knowledge.
- *The Philospher Said:* A daily five-minute programme which uses dialogue to present the concepts of virtue

and beauty, reinforced by Arab and Islamic traditions. This programme has been broadcast now since 1971.

- *Visiting Someone's Library:* A weekly one-hour programme which reviews a book or books in someone's library and discusses the guest's reading interests, habits, the number of books in his/her library, how the library was formed, etc. This programme arouses the listener's curiosity and encourages reading.
- *Reading for You:* This programme reviews new books in different fields.
- *Our Beautiful Language:* A daily ten-minute programme on Arabic literature, which uses simple poetry and prose. This programme has been broadcast now since 1978.

Educational programmes account for 5.17 % of total transmission time on both channels of Egyptian television. In addition to complementary programmes for formal education, television offers the following literacy programmes, namely:

Literacy Programmes

These started on an experimental basis in 1963 in cooperation with ASFEC (Arab States Fundamental Education Centre) and provided supervision as well as the appropriate education materials. This arrangement was amended in 1968 to involve several different ministries, local administration bodies and mass organizations.

PL Programmes

These include:

Simplified Science: A series of seventy 15-minute programmes on simplified subjects, broadcast weekly from 1983 to 1984.

Teach Yourself (teaching different skills): This weekly 15-minute programme teaches skills such as foundry work, electricity, carpentry, painting, etc.

Economics for Everyone: Thirty-nine instalments of five minutes each have been broadcast three times a week since 1981.

JAMAL's Radio and TV Programmes for PL and CE[4]

Jamaica has also used modern media, particularly radio and TV, to promote the country's PL and CE programmes. Reasons for this are four-fold:

1. There is a need to match mass demand for education to limited teacher resources (i.e. there are not enough teachers available to cope with the demand created by neo-literates for PL and CE programmes, which has compelled organizers to look for new strategies).
2. There is a need for centrally-arranged lessons in order to support and help the volunteer and part-time teachers of the various adult groups. This is very important, as these volunteers do not have much time themselves:
   - to undergo training for the job or
   - to prepare their own teaching materials in any depth.

3. Because of their element of novelty, the media have the power to stimulate stronger learner motivation and maintain learners' interest in the PL and CE programmes.
4. Nationwide broadcasts are highly effective in:
   - stimulating popular awareness of the nature and scope of educational problems facing the country; and
   - developing all available resources in order to help solve these educational problems of retention, continuation and application of acquired literacy skills.

In accordance with this, the media programmes are prepared and broadcast under two distinct categories - "instructional" and "motivational".

i. The **Instructional** category includes two series:
   - The *Teaching Box*; and
   - *TOTAL*, which stands for *Training of Teachers of Adult Learners.*

   These two series of programmes are intended to assist teachers in problematic areas of their work.

   The content of the Instructional category has objectives that are similar to those of textual and other reading materials. Some of the features include:

   - a clear and deliberate attempt to establish a direct relationship between the use of textual and other supplementary reading materials on the one hand, and the use of the modern media on the other;
   - broadcasts which are often based entirely on a series of booklets or brochures;

- the assumption of previous knowledge which is absolutely vital for an understanding of the content being dealt with in the media;
- specific programmes consisting of formal and nonformal academic courses on given subjects. Some of the subjects covered include education itself, agriculture, health, livestock breeding, family economy, political and civic education, mathematics, culture and religion.
- the selection of programme content is generally determined through a careful assessment of:
  - national needs and priorities;
  - local demand, priorities and needs.
- the fact that the approach adopted at any given time is dictated by the nature of the specific target group for whom the programme is intended.

ii. The **Motivational** category includes the following series:

- *Into the Light,* and
- *Lamplight.*

Both of these programmes are non-academic and concentrate on the motivation not only of neo-literates but of the population in general. The content of these non-academic programmes concentrates on significant community interests, such as:

- the construction of a sewerage pit (public health);
- the control of malaria (public health);
- water treatment (basic health needs);
- household remedies, etc. (miscellaneous concerns).

New Media for Motivation in PL and CE in Kuwait[5]

In *Kuwait*, a radio series called *Knowledge is Light* is produced by the Permanent Committee for Information on Literacy in cooperation with the Ministry of Information's Radio Department. This programme, which is supported by other radio programmes, aims at informing adults of the importance of adult education. Likewise, a TV Programme on Basic Skills has been launched within the framework of PL and adult education. Sixteen promotional series in the form of short sketches were prepared by the Permanent Committee in cooperation with a private enterprise called Al Nawras Company for Artistic Productions.

Educational Radio in Mali[6]

In *Mali,* an Educational Radio Unit was set up within the Literacy Campaign in 1975 with the following objectives:

- to inform the public about the structure, function and practice of literacy centres;
- to arouse the interest of inhabitants of the zones where efforts to extend functional literacy are being made;
- to contribute to the training and improvement of the animators and the heads of literacy zones (ZAF, *Zone d'Aphabétisation Fonctionnelle);*
- to enable the centres to profit from each other's experience by means of reports and interviews;
- to ensure a permanent dialogue between animators, listeners, and those responsible for literacy and the other technical services by establishing organized listening groups;

- to assist neo-literates in consolidating and developing the knowledge they have acquired.

Since the time spent on the training of animators (most of whom are inadequately literate) is relatively short, even with the best will in the world it has not always been possible for them to acquire the desirable educational techniques. Here again, the radio has proved an excellent means of keeping in contact with the animators, many of whom live in inaccessible localities for a large part of the year. Through a special programme, the Educational Radio Service has been able to:

- give animators pedagogical training; and
- establish a system of feedback in the form of liaison reports, which has provided a practical solution to communication problems.

With the evolution of functional literacy, the activities of the Educational Radio Service entered a new phase. The problems arising from the convergence of two phenomena - the neo-literates' thirst for learning, and the lack of PL reading material - could only be solved by using this service. Consequently, action was taken in the form of radiovision (a combination of radio broadcasting and visual aids) intended specifically for PL centres, where neo-literate listeners were organized into **listening groups.** The following factors play an important role in establishing such groups:

- acceptance by the village;
- the availability of a radio set;
- the availability of a minimum of ten neo-literates;
- the accessibility of the PL centre.

The content of the programme is based on discussions between the population concerned and the development agencies involved.

After listening to the broadcasts, the group is given an opportunity to air its reactions and suggestions on a sheet called "Listening Report". The Educational Radio Service then analyses and combines the ideas received and produces a broadcast called "Reply Mail".

The listening reports, which are first analysed by the directors of functional literacy in each zone, involve an exchange of correspondence: This ensures feedback between the different people in charge and the listening groups. This system stimulates the interest of the collective listening groups, who find it an excellent means of communication.

Instructional Radio in Tanzania[7]

Tanzania's broadcasts in support of Literacy began in January 1974. As functional literacy programmes spread from the four regions around Lake Nyanza to the rest of the country, a Radio Education Unit was set up in Mwanza and at the Ministry of Education Headquarters in Dar es Salaam to develop and produce radio programmes in order to overcome communication difficulties. All the programmes are national and are broadcast centrally by Radio Tanzania, which has three booster stations.

The use of radio education programmes has five main aims with related objectives:

i. Motivational. To stimulate and promote effective participation in the national literacy campaign.

ii. Instructional. To enrich the learning and teaching process.

iii. Functional. To reinforce the creation of a literate environment.

iv. Communicational. To alleviate communication problems.

v. Informational. To provide information and materials for literacy training, book production, rural libraries and rural newspapers through recorded reports, field reports and transcripts.

So far, three programme series have been developed:

- Class support - radio education as support for literacy programmes: *Kisomo kwa Radio*. This is a thirty-minute programme for learners of literacy and PL groups.
- In-service teacher training: *Mwalimu wa Walimu* ("The Teacher's Teacher"). This is a fifteen-minute programme for literacy teachers and supervisors of literacy activities.
- General motivation: *Nyimbo za Kisomo* ("Cultural Songs"). This is a thirty-minute programme with music and information.

The class support programme aims at encouraging class attendance by outlining the purpose and importance of functional literacy and discusses the major problems encountered in its implementation. In order to emphasize the literacy aspect of the programme and help distinguish it from the functional skills aspect, attention is drawn to a selected slogan. This three to six-word slogan is dictated at the beginning of the programme for the teacher to write on the blackboard so that the class have it in front of them throughout the programme. It is repeated by the programme narrator and specialist contributors in the course of the programme.

In the literacy exercise the teacher is advised to break down the words into separate syllables. The learners read them, count them, write them in their exercise books and build new words from them based on the patterns of the literacy exercises in their primers.

Each programme is broadcast twice a week. Since the beginning of adult education broadcasts, the Directorate of Adult Education has distributed 7,000 radio receivers, formed radio listening groups and trained radio listening group leaders who, in most cases, are literacy teachers. All educational institutions under the Ministry of National Education have radio receivers which they have been instructed to use for children as well as for adults. The Directorate of Adult Education has prepared, printed and distributed radio broadcast timetables to all educational institutions and radio listening-group leaders.

All adult education radio programmes incorporate discussion questions towards the end of the programme which are intended to serve as the basis of post-broadcast group discussions. The radio listening groups listen to the programmes, discuss them and decide on possible ways of implementing the ideas put forward in the broadcast. A programme report form is designed, tested and developed. It provides a range of responses and should be filled in immediately after every broadcast and sent to the radio unit. It provides information regarding the main content of the post-broadcast discussion, questions raised by group members, topics suggested for future programmes, teachers' suggestions, class news and reception conditions.

Education Through Radio in Thailand[8]

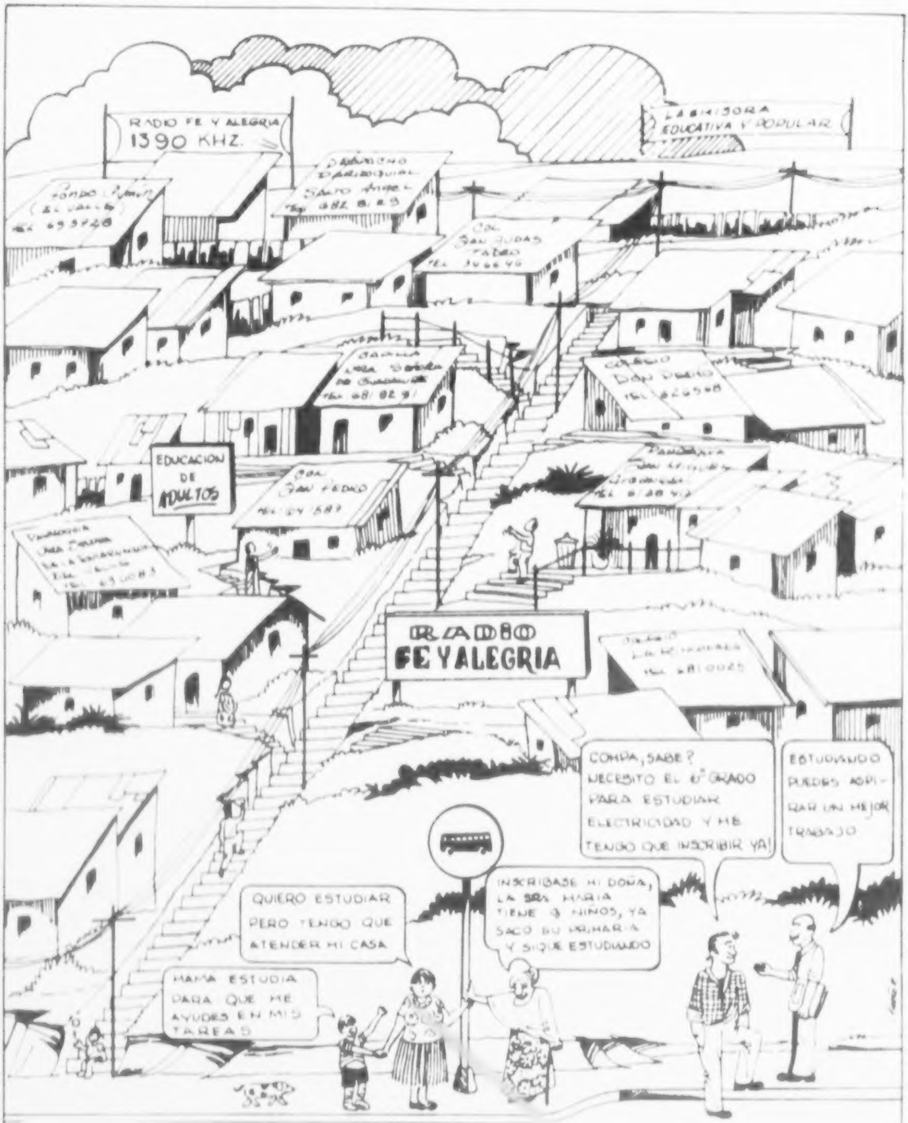
The Radio Programme for Professional Advancement in *Thailand* is compiled by the Department of Teacher Training to prepare teachers with only low-level teaching certificates or none, for upgrading examinations. The programme also features much useful information for general audiences. Besides these programmes organized by the Ministry of Education, there are radio programmes produced by other units and agencies such as Sukhothaithammathiraj, an open university offering educational programmes leading to a bachelor's degree. Other ministries also produce radio programmes in their own specialized areas.

Primary and Basic Education Through Radio in Venezuela[9]

The *Venezuelan* mass media have only one main formal educational service. This special service of programmes, known as the *Instituto Radiofónico Fé y Alegría* "Radiophonic Institute Faith and Joy"), is promoted by the Church in Venezuela and provides:

- primary and basic education;
- literacy programmes; and
- non-formal education programmes.

Opposite page:
Illustration 9. Poster advertising *Radio Fé y Alegría* (Venezuela). Note that contact telephone numbers are given as well as the radio wave length.


RADIO FE Y ALEGRIA 1390 KHZ.
LA EMISORA EDUCATIVA Y POPULAR
Dispensario Parroquial Santo Angel
Col. San Judas Tadeo
Colegio Don Pedro
EDUCACION DE ADULTOS
Col. San Pedro
RADIO FE Y ALEGRIA
COMPA, SABE? NECESITO EL 6° GRADO PARA ESTUDIAR ELECTRICIDAD Y ME TENGO QUE INSCRIBIR YA!
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QUIERO ESTUDIAR PERO TENGO QUE ATENDER MI CASA
INSCRIBASE MI DOÑA, LA SRA. MARIA TIENE 8 NIÑOS, YA SACO SU PRIMARIA Y SIGUE ESTUDIANDO
MAMA ESTUDIA PARA QUE ME AYUDES EN MIS TAREAS

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Since the standards of the primary and basic education programme correspond to those within the formal school system, certificates are awarded, which are recognized by the Ministry of Education.

The radio programmes are organized into:

- daily radio classes which are based on printed materials; and
- weekly group meetings, with a teacher-facilitator who helps the participants on a voluntary basis.

The main aims of this service are to:

- lead the adult population into community participation and organization based upon their immediate interests;
- help them obtain Primary and Basic Cycle certificates; and
- increase their social status and income levels.

This three-fold objective is summarized in the acronym ECO, which stands for Education, Communication and Organization.

The participants are illiterates or persons who have not completed primary education. Each of the four courses has a duration of 21 weeks, five days a week. Each transmission has a duration of one hour and the student must devote one or two hours a day to preparing the materials. The participants also set aside two hours during the weekend in order to go to the centres to receive guidance and to exchange materials.

The programme is broadcast twice a day. The participant can choose one or both of the transmissions, listen to them at home and then attend one of the 92 orientation centres.

The distance from home to the centre is short and the fees are low. Hence, one can say that it is a very accessible programme.

Supplementary printed materials are prepared to support the radio class. These take the form of typewritten sheets, which constitute part of a general programme that is divided into levels for day-to-day and week-to-week activities. There is a general scheme for each class, the scheme sheet giving the content and exercises for the participants. In levels two and three there is a sheet for each subject, and the participant can use more than one sheet a day.

The participants go to the centre every weekend for study group sessions with the orientator. The sessions last from one to two hours and activities include:

- questions from the participants about objectives and content of the programme, exercise sheets, etc.
- reinforcement and motivation from the orientator
- evaluation of the group's work
- collection of completed exercise sheets
- return of corrected sheets
- distribution of new material
- organization of participant payment
- exchange of experiences
- preparation of the report for the Radiophonic Institute
- discussion and planning of group activities.

There are various follow-up measures. Each centre reports to the Institute once a week on the number of students attending, drop-outs, evaluation results and other matters. There is a weekly report on the materials used in the programmes and radio transmissions. The Orientation Centre is also visited by personnel from the Institute who evaluate the group activities taking place. Sessions are held in each zone with the orientators of the centres to review the programme and study new programmes and the progress of the participants is evaluated after 7, 14 and 21 weeks.

Production and Distribution

The manner in which the material for programmes incorporating the modern media as a LS is conceived, prepared, organized and presented varies from country to country. Four main patterns emerge from the cases studied, namely:

- programmes are prepared, organized and disseminated solely by the adult education institutions of the country;
- programmes are designed and produced by media specialists, with advice from adult education personnel;
- programmes are organized and produced by private voluntary organizations (NGO's), which may submit their work to the examination of adult education personnel or may choose to use some other competent authority for the purpose. Some of the NGO's rely entirely on direct feedback from listeners, viewers and learners;
- in a large number of countries, the literacy and adult education services depend entirely on the expertise of the radio and TV personnel as well as on the cinema and film producers of their countries.

NOTE that, in the fourth alternative in particular, it is necessary for the practitioner who is going to use these media for his classes to **preview** the programmes which are not produced expressly for PL and CE purposes. Where it is impossible to preview the programme, it should be viewed or listened to carefully when it is transmitted, so that appropriate guidance can be given to the group of learners.

The use of radio involves at least two basic steps: recording the material and then broadcasting it to the audience. In most of the countries studied, the material intended for PL and CE programmes is pre-recorded. This gives the staff an opportunity to edit it before putting it out to their target population.

This approach, however, varies from country to country:

- In some of the countries, the departments of literacy and adult education have their own studios where the material is processed.
- In others, the national broadcasting station has a broadcasting studio expressly for educational radio and TV. Such studios generally involve the teamwork of:
  - distance education specialists;
  - curriculum experts in the subject areas covered; and
  - radio technicians who are responsible for the technical side of the recordings.
- Some countries have itinerant teams (mobile units) which travel the country and record programmes on location. These are brought back to the studio for processing and broadcasting to the audience.

Venezuela presents a unique approach, differing slightly from other patterns, in which the broadcasts have a greater impact. The material is prepared using the methodology adopted by *educación popular* (i.e. "grass-roots education" or "community-based education"), which follows the procedure given below:

- each programme starts with a critical examination of an aspect of the culture that the producers think needs to be examined;
- the problems, needs and interests of the people relating to the chosen topic are then highlighted;
- the material prepared is "returned to the people", for them to make any necessary improvements in its authenticity and accuracy;
- it is only then that the material is sent out or broadcast.

The principle behind this Venezuelan innovation is that the material should not just be prepared for the learners but should be seen as something coming from them and prepared in collaboration with them, thereby bringing more life and real experience into the learning situation. It is believed that this will enable them to rewrite their own history. This is a practical example of using the Action-Reflection-Action method to enable people to learn from their own experience and systematize what they discover in preparing "action".

Organization of Broadcasts

Because of the nature of the new media, no one individual or group of individuals can claim monopoly as the sole listeners to or viewers of the broadcasts. For any broadcast, the type, size and location of the actual audience cannot be firmly established; one can only make an estimate.

To ensure maximum use of the educational broadcasts, an attempt is always made to organize learners into groups who can engage in regular and active listening.

The countries whose use of the modern media (mainly radio) has been documented have organized various groups which neo-literates can join. The most important of these are:

- radiophonic schools, as in *Colombia* and *Venezuela*, etc.
- radio clubs, as in *Burkina Faso* and *Niger*, etc. and
- listening groups as in *Mali* and *Tanzania*, etc.

In each case, the aim is always to improve the impact of the broadcasts by soliciting the support and response of the groups concerned.

To maintain the cohesion of the groups, continual motivation is necessary. One notable way of making certain that the groups work regularly is to supply them with radios or simple receivers. While some countries supply these free of charge to the groups, other countries loan them out and in some cases sell them to the group.

Tanzania has supplied 7,000 radios to listening groups, *Mali* has 1,440 listening groups with radios, and *Colombia* has had an estimated 40,000 groups.

The objective in *Colombia*, in particular, is:

- to turn each home into a school;
- to propagate solidarity in education;
- to enable the audience (learners) to assimilate the content of the broadcasts through group discussion.

It is estimated that 150,000 learners belong to the listening groups.

The average duration of broadcasts in most of the countries ranges from 15 to 45 minutes. Although educational radio tends to be directed at neo-literate learners of specific target groups, such as farmers or herdsmen or women, etc., it is not possible to restrict the broadcasts to any specific group or category of people, as anybody is free to tune in and listen, or watch the television broadcasts.

Despite this, it is still essential to make provision for the learning groups as a specific target group. To improve the dissemination of the programmes to specific PL and CE groups, the following arrangements are adopted for maximum impact:

- having a regular daily broadcast (as in *Brazil*, *Mali*, *Tanzania*, etc.);
- having regular weekly broadcasts (as in *Niger*, *Senegal*, etc.);
- setting up a separate channel for educational broadcasts (as in *Colombia*, *Ethiopia*, *Jamaica*, *Burkina Faso*, *Venezuela*, etc.).

For certain rural groups, namely farmers, fishermen etc., it is difficult to observe the regular broadcast times because of the nature of their work. For some, the length of the programme presents problems, and there is always the probability that many people miss important programmes or parts thereof, because the time does not fit in with their schedule.

Mali has introduced an interesting solution to this problem which is well worth considering by other groups. A whole day is devoted to the "rural world", when broadcasts are aimed at farmers. Fridays are chosen for this purpose, because it is traditionally the farmers' day of rest in Mali. During the day, intensive and varied educational programmes are broadcast specifically for them. It is said that this is by far the most successful scheme - these are the programmes people listen to most and for which they express the greatest appreciation.

In order to coordinate the radio programmes and make sure that the aims are being achieved, some countries have set up a number of committees or other similar organizations to monitor and evaluate the programmes. In *Tanzania*, these committees meet weekly. In other cases, it is usually a monthly meeting, or it can sometimes be fairly irregular.

In some cases, there is a shortage of receivers for the learners in the programme. To counteract this, *Ethiopia* has introduced a scheme whereby listening points have been extended by linking up the receiver with additional loudspeakers positioned in adjoining rooms, thereby considerably increasing its capacity.

To ensure that equipment is maintained in good condition, mobile teams can be set up, which visit the Lifelong Education Centres (FEP's) in *Niger*, for example, and service the technical equipment belonging to the radio clubs and listening groups.

In addition to this continual maintenance, *Mali* has a mobile team which moves around the country and provides villagers with basic training in the upkeep and simple maintenance of the equipment.

Learning how to Listen

One of the key points in the use of the modern media is the importance of actually listening when programmes are broadcast. This is not as simple as it sounds. Larry Barker, in his book *Listening Behavior*, defines listening operationally as:

> *the selective process of attending to, hearing, understanding, and remembering aural symbols.* Thus, listening involves four separate but interrelated processes: attention, hearing, understanding, and remembering... *Attention* refers to focused perception of visual and/or verbal stimuli (such as the speaker's message); *hearing* refers to the physiological process of receiving aural stimuli (note that seeing also may be a critical element in the listening process); *understanding* refers to the assignment of meaning to the messages received (hopefully similar meaning to that intended by the initiator of the message); and *remembering* involves the storing of meaningful information in the mind for the purpose of recalling it at a later time.[10]

Listening is a **skill**, an **art** and a **discipline**.

As a **Skill**:

The practitioner has to make sure that students have acquired this skill. This applies equally to both literacy and neo-literacy animators/facilitators working in the field.

Practitioners who are doubtful about their skills in this area should contact their national literacy or PL authorities so that they can arrange a training programme.

All the listeners in the group(s) also need to acquire this skill. The practitioners may be in a position to help them to do this. They may engage the assistance of those of the neo-literates who have already acquired the skill.

Some countries utilize mobile training teams which travel from the national centres to a number of points in rural areas to provide this training.

In some cases, the training in listening skills is transmitted through radio broadcasts. It has been shown, however, that initial face-to-face training is always more effective.

As an **Art**:

It is important to note that there is no single prescribed route to achieving perfection in listening skills. Flexibility is needed when training others.

Listening skills can always be refined, even in the case of the experts.

Often, those to whom training is given can attain a higher standard of listening skills than trainers themselves. This is a case in which practitioners and their students ARE LEARNING TOGETHER.

It is not possible for anybody to attain full perfection in this important area.

As a **Discipline**:

A high degree of self-discipline is required; the listener has to exercise control over and coordinate a wide range of mental faculties in order to achieve efficient listening.

That **Listening** is the key to the successful impact of radio programmes is a fact which cannot be denied. If a high standard of listening is required, as much time and effort as possible must be devoted to the development of listening skills.

The Small Media

Before closing this section, it is important to examine the role of the "small media" (i.e. other audiovisual equipment such as cassettes, slides etc.) in promoting PL and CE programmes.

In some countries, instead of relying on the radio broadcasts alone, cassettes and slides are used, particularly in rural areas. These can be used:

- to record the radio broadcasts, which can then be circulated more widely;
- to extend the work of a facilitator who cannot physically travel around the entire area to be covered;
- to give neo-literates an opportunity of having their own voices recorded in discussions, which can then be used for further analysis;
- to listen to the same programme again, just as one rereads a book. This is crucial for a thorough understanding of difficult or complicated material.

These and other possible advantages to be gained by using small media should not be ignored just because mass media are available.

Some Innovative Uses of the Small Media [11]

The Cassette-Forum Method uses a simple communication system to promote learning in both rural and urban communities. The main features of this method are given below:

- It is able to link two or more groups together in a common learning enterprise (i.e. it has "intergroup" qualities).
- It encourages the exchange of cassettes among groups of neo-literate learners and among groups in continuing education programmes.
- It affords grass-roots organizations the opportunity to establish a long-distance dialogue with other such organizations and with the directive group.
- Receiving recorded feedback from the groups helps facilitators/animators to improve the programmes.

Other innovations and combinations have been used in Latin America. IMDEC (Mexican Institute for Community Development), in Guadalajara, *Mexico*, and SONOVISO, in Lima, *Peru*, employ the small media as the primary medium for education/communication:

- Slides are combined with cassettes to present information for educational purposes.
- This combination serves as a source of motivation for the discussion and analysis of significant topics.

CESAP (Centre at the Service of Popular Action) in *Venezuela*, conducts popular group courses employing:

- multi-media material including the small media; and
- popular folk drama.

CIDE (Educational Research and Development Centre) in *Chile*, uses another multi-media approach combining:

- slides
- pictures and posters
- educational booklets

- popular folk drama,

in motivating groups to engage in community group learning activities.

In *Peru*, one of the main educational extension programmes which came into effect during their last educational reform utilizes the Dynamic Science and Technology Museum as a focal point for providing motivation and promoting an active educational environment for groups of people through:

- scientific research projects; and
- experiments conducted with waste materials.

The results are then presented to groups of people who are encouraged to participate both individually and collectively in improving aspects of their community.

As we have seen from various examples, the small media are a useful way of:

- applying appropriate technology as a strategy for promoting PL and CE programmes;
- devising a system which favours the poorer and remote rural areas but which nevertheless is equally suitable for use with urban groups;
- providing a suitable supplement to the modern mass media by encouraging a multi-media approach.

Practitioners everywhere are strongly urged to incorporate the small media into their programmes, as these offer a great potential for more creative approaches to PL and CE.

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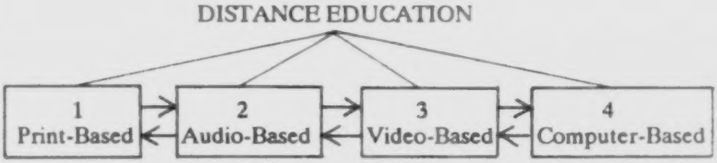
Chapter 5

Using Distance Education and Correspondence Courses as Learning Strategies

Correspondence education is a term which usually refers to "the teaching-learning process that occurs when information is exchanged in writing".[1] Together with radio, television and other electronic media, correspondence courses form part of what is referred to as "distance education". Distance education is a flexible alternative system of education which endeavours to "redistribute teaching in space and time, promotes assisted self-learning, and helps the individual to choose his path more freely in a more flexible framework."[2]

Distance education depends on certain media, as shown in the diagram below:



Of these four media-based approaches, the PL and CE programmes have, up to now, depended mainly on the first two (i.e. print-based and audio-based). The third medium, the use of video, is only now being introduced slowly. Nevertheless, it has already been incorporated in some Third World programmes. The fourth medium - the computer - has not as yet been utilized for distance education in the Third World. Since this handbook considers experiences from Third World countries it concentrates largely on correspondence courses, some of which incorporate audio or video material.

Features of Distance Education

Distance education (including correspondence study) has certain important features worth noting. Keegan identifies some characteristics of distance education, five of which will be given here. These are:

- the separation of teacher and learner, which distinguishes it from face-to-face teaching;
- the influence of an educational organization, which distinguishes it from private study;
- the use of technical media, usually print, to unite teacher and learner and to convey the educational content;
- the provision of two-way communication so that the student may benefit from or even initiate dialogue; and
- the possibility of occasional meetings for both didactic and social purposes.[3]

In addition to Keegan's points, other notable features may be added to the list such as:

- reliance on the independence and autonomy of the learner, who decides
  - what to learn; and
  - how to learn;
- the basic principle of distance learning, which is to furnish participants with resources for education, wherever they might be;
- the provision of education to those who could not otherwise afford it, or who are unable to go where permanent facilities exist;
- the fact that successful participation depends strictly on personal qualities such as perseverance and self-discipline.

In many countries, distance education courses are provided for:

- the training of trainers for PL and CE programmes;
- the continuing education of young people who, for one reason or another, have interrupted or given up their former studies and are looking for a "second chance";
- a small number of neo-literates, who wish to retain and apply their literacy skills;
- groups of farmers, including both literate and non-literate members.

Objectives and Content of Distance Education

Since the target groups for distance education are varied, objectives must be broad in order to respond to the wide range of the consumers' needs. The main objectives of distance education, as revealed by the studies carried out by UIE in developing countries, are:

1. to help farmers acquire knowledge of agriculture and livestock-rearing techniques
   - in their own language wherever possible; and
   - at their own convenience.

   This objective has been extensively promoted through the INADES/FORMATION courses, particularly in *Burkina Faso*, *Burundi* and *Ethiopia*.

   NOTE: INADES stands for *Institut Africain pour le Développement Economique et Social* (African Institute of Economic and Social Development) based in the *Côte d'Ivoire*, West Africa; FORMATION (Training) is the section responsible for correspondence education.

2. to educate training officers in modern agriculture

   Burkina Faso again provides good examples of this. *Tanzania* also makes extensive use of distance education for training primary school teachers.

3. to provide the more academic (traditional) correspondence courses designed mainly for young adults, with the emphasis on:
   - the need to develop individual responsibility;
   - the need to promote economic and social development;
   - the need to encourage learning in general.

   A good example of this may be found in *Venezuela*, where many people are involved in this kind of education.

4. to serve as a mechanism for obtaining feedback from programmes

This is a special innovation by the *ACPO in Colombia*, where correspondence has been used effectively to:

- integrate the media involved;
- support the social services; and
- encourage **personal**, **family** and **community** development activities.

The important points which emerge from a summary of these objectives may serve as guidelines for the future incorporation of distance education into PL and CE programmes in other countries:

1. PL and CE are part of the lifelong education continuum.
2. Literacy is not an end in itself but a tool for achieving other goals in life.
3. Development at the grass-roots level involves the participation of all kinds of people, including the non-literate, the literate, literacy personnel, extension workers etc.

Organization and Implementation of Distance Education

In order to set up a distance teaching unit, certain basic conditions are necessary. It should be remembered that one of the features of this type of study arrangement, as pointed out earlier, is that it requires a constant two-way flow of information between the learner and the programme centre. To satisfy this requirement, attention must be paid to two elements: (a) a **structural** element and (b) an **academic** and **management** function.

a) *The Structural Element*

Basic to this is the need to:

- establish an administration centre where there will be easy access to:
  - already existing agencies;
  - "relay" stations; i.e. intermediary points of contact;
    and
  - branch offices, to afford some element of decentralization of control;
- establish an efficient postal service, which is the basis of any correspondence education system.

b) *The Academic and Management Function*

This involves such basic questions as:

- management of the academic aspects of the programme;
- a mode of administration and distribution of responsibility suitable for this type of programme.

Those who do not yet use a distance teaching strategy and are thinking of organizing one, need to consider these points very seriously. The amount of time and energy allocated to these considerations in the initial stage is an investment which is well worthwhile.

We shall now turn to the specific examples of correspondence courses in different countries.

Correspondence Courses Developed by INADES/FORMATION[4]

INADES is based in the Côte d'Ivoire and serves mainly the Francophone countries in the region. The headquarters are in Abidjan. Although it has a highly centralized administration system, it now shares some of its important services with "relay stations". The types of function which are delegated to these stations include:

- the enrolment of learners;
- the dispatch of course materials;
- the marking of scripts sent in by the learners;
- the organization of face-to-face sessions.

The course work is based on booklets printed by INADES. These make up the main content of the INADES courses. Each booklet covers three or four lessons and is divided into two main parts:

i) a series of detachable question sheets, constituting the correspondence element; and
ii) a supplementary page reserved for any other comments the participant may wish to make, either about the course itself or about his progress.

The detachable question sheets contain three types of question:

- Simple questions to check what the learner has assimilated. These are factual questions and the answers may be found in the text.

- Questions which require the individual to reflect upon and combine information, and which therefore throw light upon the extent to which the individual understands the course.
- Questions intended to establish a dynamic link between the content of the booklet and the participant's own experience. This gives the participant the opportunity to apply new knowledge to concrete situations.

This approach then is centred on the individual. It therefore:

- requires a high degree of motivation on the part of the participant; and
- needs a relatively high level of literacy.

These more adacemic courses, which require a high degree of literacy on the part of the individual participant, are taken by:

- literacy personnel;
- primary school teachers;
- extension workers in agriculture, health, etc.; and
- young adults who use these courses as an alternative to the formal secondary school.

INADES also encourages the formation of study groups, which may include semi-literates and complete non-literates. Examples of these can be seen in the "Collective" Correspondence Courses for farmers in *Burkina Faso*, *Burundi* and *Ethiopia*.

Agricultural Studies for Farmers Through Correspondence in Burkina Faso [5]

The correspondence courses in *Burkina Faso* rely heavily on the programmes developed by INADES/FORMATION. The courses are directed mostly at farmers and at agricultural development in general. More specifically, the programme has the aims of:

- making available to those who are most disadvantaged, i.e. the rural world, relevant technical knowledge so that through the efforts of the functional literacy programme, farmers can directly acquire knowledge in agricultural and livestock techniques in their own language;
- avoiding the formal restrictions which make other kinds of study impossible for people with a fixed schedule, such as farmers: correspondence courses are much more flexible since the individual can choose when to begin, can find a study rhythm which fits in with his lifestyle and can select the topics he wants to study;
- providing support for the PL phase by organizing a system of further education addressed to neo-literates;
- assisting the training officers in rural areas in explaining the techniques of modern agriculture better and more effectively in simple language specially adapted for the purpose.

Since the agricultural course already exists in basic French, the preparation of the course in the Moore language, one of the most widely used languages in Burkina Faso, has been a straightforward matter of translation and adaptation, with attention paid to the following features:

- simple grammatical constructions;

- arrangement of the content in verse;
- use of "colloquial Moore";
- maximum use of the lexicological resources of the Moore language.

The course in agriculture in Moore follows a pedagogical progression which the participants should stick to if they are to benefit from the whole range of agricultural techniques contained in it. The course, which encompasses four series of nine booklets each, requires a year of study. An introductory booklet defines the content, the target group, and the work method.

The individual subscriber is advised to study one book a month, three or four times a week. The subscriber can adapt his rhythm to fit in with his own personal schedule. Consultation with someone better informed is strongly recommended, however, together with application of the practical exercises set out in the book.

An interesting feature of the Burkina Faso programme is the development of the "collective correspondence course". This is an innovation through which groups of between four and twelve farmers are encouraged to subscribe collectively to the correspondence course. The only conditions are that:

- they should be working together in same field; or
- they should be growing the same types of crop.

Distance Education in Colombia [6]

In *Colombia*, work in this area is closely linked with the programmes organized by ACPO, *Acción Cultural Popular* (Programme of Popular Cultural Action), and by the *Fondo de Capacitación Popular* (Popular Training fund).

ACPO PROGRAMMES

The ACPO programmes, which have now been interrupted, were carried out through radiophonic schools and also extensive multi-media packages.

The correspondence programme, which was fully integrated with the media courses:

- rendered a service to individuals; and
- served family and community development activities.

In order to make the task easier, the country was divided into seven geographical zones. This helped in:

- receiving letters from participants;
- processing the letters;
- sending appropriate replies to each letter received.

Several channels were used for replying to these letters, namely:

- through the radio programme;
- through the local newspaper *El Campesino*; or
- by sending a letter direct to the participant.

Correspondence was used to:

- obtain feedback from ACPO programmes, thus facilitating evaluation of the programmes; and
- create a discourse and hence a point of contact between organizer and participant.

PROGRAMMES OF THE POPULAR TRAINING FUND (FCP) OF INRAVISION

The Popular Training Fund (FCP) is an official agency attached to the Colombian National Institute for Radio and Television (INRAVISION), which, in turn, is linked with the Ministry of Communication. It was created in 1967 in order to provide an educational service through mass media such as radio, television and printed materials.

Objectives

- to increase the number of educational opportunities in order to offer all sectors of the Colombian population access to literacy, primary and secondary education and other nonformal programmes for cultural extension;
- to support individual and group learning;
- to help solve the problem of shortage of teachers, classrooms, materials and other educational resources;
- to reach those sectors of the population containing a higher number of illiterates or persons of school age who have not been able to continue their primary or secondary basic education;
- to promote community participation in education;
- to develop its own models of distance education through radio and television;
- to use pedagogic strategies and other alternative teaching methods aimed at improving the quality of education and encouraging self-education.

Organization

In order to attain the objectives mentioned above, the FCP is divided into pedagogical, educational production, administrative, research and evaluation sections, all of which are grouped under a single general directorate.

- Director: Appointed by the Governing Council of INRAVISION, the Director - as the highest authority - exercises direct control over the Third Television Channel. He represents the FCP and coordinates all its actions with other agencies.
- Pedagogical Section: This designs and produces all the programmes, including the textbooks, scripts for radio and television, booklets and guides covering the areas of literacy, primary and secondary education, and some nonformal programmes in cooperation with other agencies (e.g. the health service). In addition, it offers advice for the production of other radio and television programmes prepared by different radio and TV channels.
- Educational Production Section: This section prepares educational material such as films, slides, photographs, drawings, video and tapes, which are needed for the radio and television programmes. It is responsible for the production and recording of the different programmes.
- Administrative Section: This manages FCP's material and economic resources. The tasks of receiving correspondence and dispatching materials are carried out by the group in charge of the archives. This section is also responsible for the enrolment for the courses offered in primary and secondary education.
- Research and Evaluation Section: This section is responsible for the statistical processing of data about

the programmes and the evaluation of students' progress and achievements. It promotes the programmes at the community level and provides orientation for local cultural agencies.

Target Population

The target population is very heterogeneous with regard to age, sex, expectations, needs and interests, place of origin, living environment, etc.

Each of the programmes is aimed at a particular audience, whose interests and needs are taken into account when preparing the curriculum. In general, the audience of these educational programmes is composed of people who:

- have never received basic primary or secondary education at the usual school age;
- have discontinued formal studies for several years;
- want to continue their formal training and keep their knowledge up to date.

In general, the audience is comprised of young people: 58% are between 14 and 19 years old; 64% of the learners are women.

Programmes

FCP carries out two types of programme:

- Formal programmes: Basic Primary Education for Adults (including literacy), and Basic Secondary Education for Adults, both of which are presented through radio and television.

- Nonformal programmes: These allow the general television audience to update their knowledge in the fields of science, culture, sport and the arts.
  They serve as a means for communities to express their opinions, to show and disseminate their folklore, their achievements and their identity, making possible the participation of the people in socio-cultural development actions. Programmes produced by other public and private agencies are also broadcast within this framework if contents suit the proposed objectives.

The Ministry of Education delegated the responsibility of curriculum design of Basic Education for Adults to the FCP. This work has been carried out in coordination with various departments of the Ministry itself, the National Pedagogic University, the National Institute of Development of Natural Resources (IDERENA), the Ministry of Health and the Regional Population Centre. The programme of Basic Education for Adults was designed in such a way that the basic needs, interests and problems of the Colombian population were taken into consideration.

The following themes were selected for the development of the curriculum for Basic Primary Education for Adults:

- Work (first-grade literacy)
- Community (second grade)
- Environment (third grade)
- Economy (fourth grade)
- The State (fifth grade).

Methodology

Literacy and basic primary education are broadcast through the Third Television Channel. Secondary education (first to fourth grades) is broadcast through Radio Nacional, through various private radio stations who undertake this as voluntary social work, and through radio stations who have been given contracts by the regional Secretariats of Education.

Each of the 15-minute programmes is presented by a "teacher", who uses illustrations or examples taken from daily life to clarify the text.

After each programme the groups who have watched it begin a discussion of the theme, guided by a facilitator who answers individual questions and orientates group work. Accompanying printed materials are available for this type of work.

Strategies

In order to support the programmes and accomplish the desired objectives, the FCP combines various LS:

1. Printed materials

These include the basic content of the relevant programme, and also contain exercises and evaluation activities. The selection and elaboration of the content is carried out in the following way:

- selection of themes;
- elaboration of problem areas;
- production of monographs about each theme;
- selection of curriculum units;
- preparation of these units for each theme in the form of lessons which constitute the printed material used by the students.

These materials are published either by the National Printing Press or by private printers.
Print size varies according to the level of the students for whom the material is intended. Thus, for literacy, first and second grade, script characters are larger than those used at the other levels.

Technical vocabulary is seldom used; the language employed is usually colloquial and presented in the form of dialogues, emphasizing the need for regional adaptations. Illustrations and images are simple and refer to common daily activities. Photographs are also combined with the drawings in order to develop observation skills.

In addition to the basic material for the students at each level, a teacher's guide is produced for each grade of primary education.

Motivation for and promotion of the programmes are done through radio and television. Materials are distributed in the agriculture provision stores of the Agrarian Fund in each municipality.

Although literacy booklets and the registration forms are distributed free of cost by the regional Secretariats of Education, prices of the materials for primary education vary.

2. Radio programmes

These are broadcast by Radio Nacional. Each course lasts five months. At present, the schedule for primary education (medium wave) is from 7.00 a.m. to 7.30 a.m. Students are recommended to devote two to three hours each day to reviewing the lesson and practising the exercises. No examinations are required up to the fourth grade. This means that anyone who has followed a course can go on to the next. At the end of the fifth grade the student must take an examination which is administered directly by the National Testing Service of the Colombian Institute for Fostering Higher Education (ICFES). Those who pass obtain a primary education certificate.

For secondary education, Radio Nacional broadcasts (medium wave) four courses at the following times:

First grade	19.00 to 20.00 hours
Second grade	20.00 to 21.00 hours
Third grade	5.00 to 6.00 hours
Fourth grade	6.00 to 7.00 hours

At the end of each course, students must present themselves for an examination prepared by the ICFES. Those who pass receive the corresponding certificate, which enables them to continue in the next course.

Radio is the fundamental element of the system. One hour of broadcasting time is available each day for each of the courses. During this time, three or four areas are dealt with. The lesson consists of orientation, explanations and suggestions about the contents presented as printed material. There is one written lesson corresponding to each lesson broadcast by radio.

3. Cultural television

There are three television channels in Colombia, all operated by INRAVISION. The broadcasting Channels 1 and

2 are rented to private agencies. Channel 3 is exclusively devoted to educational, cultural and recreational programmes prepared or selected by the FCP in coordination with INRAVISION.

Channel 3 broadcasts educational programmes of an open type intended for the general population. From Monday to Friday there is a series of programmes covering various themes of general interest and providing information about advances and achievements in the fields of science, culture, technology, and sports both in Colombia and in other countries. Historical and geographical topics are also covered.

These are interesting programmes for children as well as for adults. Channel 3 produces some programmes in coordination with other agencies and universities.

Channel 3 does not reach the whole country. It only covers Bogotá, 50% of the municipalities in Cundinamarca, 70% of those in Tolima, and a few in Antioquia and Caldas. For this reason Basic Primary Education for Adults courses are now also broadcast on Channel 2 in the afternoon, from 15.00 to 17.00 hours.

4. Correspondence

Students are constantly invited to write direct to the FCP when they have doubts or questions about the lessons themselves, or in general. They are requested to register the grade, the subject and the number of the lesson.

Each inquiry from a student receives a written answer. In many cases such inquiries have contributed to the design of the courses.

5. Evaluation

The monitoring system, which begins with the registration of students, provides data about the number of students enrolled in the courses as well as about their academic achievements. It receives information from the Agrarian Fund Offices about the sales of printed material, from private radio broadcasting stations, from requisitions and reports, from correspondence, telephone calls and personal visits to the FCP, and from the ICFES concerning the registration for examinations and the analysis of students' examination results.

PL and CE Correspondence Programmes in Tanzania [7]

In *Tanzania*, correspondence courses are offered by the National Correspondence Institute (NCI), which was formed in 1970 and constitutes an important branch of the Institute of Adult Education.

Five different types of course are offered. These are:

- Mass Elementary or Basic Courses;
- General Certificate of Education (GCE) "0" level courses;
- GCE "A" level courses;
- Vocational Courses; and
- Teacher Training Courses.

The courses are based on National Syllabuses produced by the Ministry of National Education. The production of the courses and the tutoring are centralized in Dar es Salaam. This is not only for purposes of close supervision and control of quality, but also because it is relatively easy to obtain qualified personnel in various fields in Dar es Salaam. "0" level courses (stages I-II) outnumber other courses. The attempt to bring most academic courses up to "A" level (stage III) has not as yet brought forth any results, except for Kiswahili III. Lack of funds to finance production of the courses has been a major problem. The size and length of these courses vary; often one course will have only 10 units, whilst another may have as many as 32 units. The "turnround period" (time covered from the moment a unit is posted to the student to the time it comes back to headquarters for marking) is two weeks for Dar es Salaam students and an average of three weeks for students living in other parts of the country. In certain cases, however, this has not worked out as planned, owing to problems of communication, an inadequate postal service, and occasional negligence on the part of a few part-time tutors.

As regards the normal courses of the Correspondence Institutions, some of them are self-contained, i.e. the study unit is sufficiently condensed so that sometimes there is no need for a textbook to supplement the unit.

The notable feature about these courses is that they are graded in difficulty, with a gradual transition from easy to more difficult. All the lessons in the study unit contain a number of self-test exercises with which the student can measure his understanding of the study material. In addition, there are written assignments at the end of the unit or in the workbooks, which are then submitted to the NCI headquarters for marking. Again, there is a page reserved for the student to ask questions and make comments about the course unit to his tutor. This affords a good channel of communication between the student and the tutor.

The Tanzanian programme is characterized by three main features:

- it has a strong academic bias, with a focus on student-teacher communication;
- it has an adequate supervisory structure located throughout the whole country; and
- it is supported by the services of other organizational structures:
  - for the distribution of materials; and
  - for the collection of homework.

Radio Correspondence Programmes in Thailand[8]

Learning from its many experiences and successes, educational radio in *Thailand* has expanded in three areas, School Radio, Radio Correspondence and Radio Programmes for Professional Advancement,of which the first two are operated by the Centre for Educational Technology and the third by the Department of Teacher Training.

The School Radio Programme prepares radio scripts for primary education in arithmetic, music, social experiences, life enrichment and the Thai language. An English language programme is organized at the secondary education level.

The *Radio Correspondence Programme* provides the out-of-school population with an opportunity for learners to pursue relevant learning on their own by using handbooks, texts, and guidelines provided by the Nonformal Education

Department (NFE). The four Regional NFE Centres, located at Lampang in the north, Songkhla in the south, Ubon in the north-east, and Rajburi in the Central Plains, serve as coordinating centres for developing curricula, materials and plans in their respective regions. The centres deal with enrolment of students, organization and recruitment of group organizers, as well as evaluation and follow-up of the programme.

The Radio Correspondence Programme began as an experimental project in 1972, with each Regional Centre developing a curriculum and programme to suit regional needs and conditions. Ending its experimental phase, the programme began normal operations in 1982. The programme has extended its coverage to a larger number of provinces and has met with great success.

At each Regional NFE Centre, annual planning meetings are organized to discuss target enrolments, areas of operation, public relations, communications, registration, time schedules, follow-up, management of class atmosphere and publication and use of teacher and student manuals. The curricula developed at each centre are similar, containing comparable content in arithmetic, science and language. The differences lie in those features which are unique to each region, i.e. language, arts, culture and occupations. The content is derived from and exemplified by real life situations as they exist within the region. An example would be mathematical problems relevant to local occupations and other life pursuits. Usually formal instruction is in the form of exposition and discussion, but local songs and regional dramatic forms are also used.

Curricula for each region must contain core material that imbues learners with positive attitudes, understanding, and pride in the three fundamental institutions: nation, religion, and king. Besides this, the curriculum should create an appreciation for democracy under the monarch as head of the state. Other materials, including what is commonly known as Life Experiences, vary according to each region.

In addition to the out-of-school programme, which parallels formal school education, Radio Correspondence Education is also conducted in the form of interest groups. The Interest Group Programme serves illiterates who have interests in such subjects as agriculture, industry, and nutrition. There are a number of other courses which reflect learners' varying needs and interests and provide them with occupational information and skills. The Interest Group Programme conducts short courses of varying lengths, but none exceeds 30 hours. Learners listen to radio broadcasts and are given programme manuals. Programme organizers meet with the learners at selected locations with the objective of maximizing the uses and understanding of lessons learned.

Credits of occupational courses taken in the Interest Group Programme can be transferred to the Functional Education Programme. This is an attempt to equate Radio Correspondence Education with all other types of programme. Eventually an attempt will be made to link these non-formal systems with their formal education counterparts. Radio and Correspondence Education is a means of meeting the educational needs of both in- and out-of-school populations.

Distance Education Centres in Venezuela[9]

In *Venezuela*, correspondence courses are organized at two distinct levels - national and local.

A. *National level*

At the national level, the Department of Educational Innovation is responsible for the following:

- design and production of learning materials;
- training of personnel;
- distribution of financial resources;
- supervision of the correspondence courses; and
- overall evaluation of the courses.

B. *Local level*

At the local level, Centres of Distance Education are set up to provide the participants with:

- learning materials;
- instruction and assistance;
- facilities for group activities; and
- an opportunity for dialogue, criticism and evaluation of the courses.

The participants in the correspondence courses are given a high degree of freedom in their approach to learning:

- they may choose to study at home;
- they may visit the Centre when they feel ready;
- they may seek guidance about:
  - the programme,
  - the methods of study,
  - evaluation, etc.
- they are at liberty to choose between:
  - self-evaluation, or
  - external evaluation conducted by the instructors at the Centre.

NOTE: Venezuela seems to be one of the most well-equipped countries as far as the organization of the correspondence courses is concerned:

a. It has set up the intermediary structures necessary (Centres etc.).
b. These are well equipped and well staffed.

An example of this is that educational advisors are attached to each Distance Education Centre in order to provide the learners with any orientation and assistance that may be required.

The Requirements of Distance Education

Correspondence education/distance education is to be entered into with caution. Practitioners who feel inspired by what is reported in these pages and convinced that they could start up distance education should first give CAREFUL CONSIDERATION to the following:

- Do the structures and organizations that are necessary to support such a programme exist?
- If it is at a national level, are the necessary infrastructures available - i.e. an efficient postal system and good communications (whether road, rail or telephone)?
- Do the practitioners have the support of their government or any other viable organization that can help sustain their efforts?
- Can the collaboration and full commitment of other organizations be relied on?

- What type of administrative network could be set up?

These and many more such questions need to be explored thoroughly before embarking on a course of action, since it serves no purpose to arouse the interest of the learners involved if such a project is ultimately unfeasible.

To conclude, however, it must be stressed that distance education is an extremely worthwile enterprise and could help to improve the quality of learning in many countries.

Distance Learning is a system of learning which frees the individual participant from the constraints normally imposed by distance and adherence to rigid timetables.

Finally, it is more effective when the multi-media approach is included in its organization. This adds another dimension to the learning experience, provided it is well organized, and it tends to involve the participant more.

BOTH THE ORGANIZER OF DISTANCE LEARNING AND THE LEARNER MUST BE PREPARED TO WORK WITH DEDICATION, PERSEVERANCE AND TOTAL COMMITMENT.

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Chapter 6

Rural Libraries, Mobile Exhibitions and Museums as Learning Strategies

Why Rural Libraries?

A rural library is vital for PL and CE as it provides a situation which is congenial to learning and other forms of academic pursuit.

In PL and CE programmes, libraries play two very important roles:[1]

- They serve as centres for the distribution of reading material, which is a difficult problem in the organization of learning programmes spread over a large area.
- Since bookshops are also mainly concentrated in the urban centres, the libraries in the rural areas are often used for selling PL and CE materials.

More specifically, rural libraries serve the needs of neo-literates in the rural areas, who are cut off from the advantages normally provided by library services. These include the provision of:

- a convenient reading and learning centre;
- access to a stock of books which would be impossible for single individuals to acquire;
- special facilities which can initiate learning;
- availability of material and opportunities that promote the continuation of learning and the use of literacy skills; and
- a convenient centre where other LS for PL and CE can be provided for the rural population.

Besides being used as a centre for reference services, there are other reasons why rural libraries should be encouraged. They serve as a preventative measure against relapse into illiteracy by:

- strengthening reading ability; and
- providing a converging point for neo-literates.

They provide a "literate environment" which includes:

- social dimensions, i.e. making available a social environment with facilities that encourage reading; and
- contact and support, i.e. providing not only a place but a situation in which someone is always at hand:
  - to lend books
  - to receive books from readers
  - to assist in locating books and other materials
  - to give advice and support to neo-literates, etc.

They give rise to the creation of mixed groups of people with a common interest - reading and learning.

Therefore, no matter how rudimentary a rural library may be, IT CONSTITUTES, IN ITSELF, A VALUABLE STRATEGY FOR THE PROMOTION OF LEARNING WITHIN PL AND CE PROGRAMMES.

Case Studies of Rural Libraries as LS

There is only limited documentation on rural libraries as LS in PL and CE programmes. Only a few concrete examples can therefore be presented here. Countries which have made use of rural libraries in an interesting and systematic way are: *India*, *Niger*, *Tanzania* and *Thailand*.

Rural Libraries in India[2]

In *India*, use of the rural library as a LS for neo-literates is widespread. The specific role allocated to the libraries varies from one state to another, and takes into account the vastness of the country and the differences in administration.

Management and Control

- Five states in India have passed legislation on libraries. These are Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Maharashtra and West Bengal.

- Three of these five states, namely Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka, impose a special tax to enable them to provide a budget for libraries.

Organization

The three states which impose a special tax adopt the following administrative structure in order to facilitate efficient management and administration of the libraries under their jurisdiction.

The libraries are managed at three administrative levels:

- district branches at the district level;
- urban and rural branches, which are provided for communities with 5,000 or more inhabitants; and
- delivery stations, which are provided for the more remote communities with not less than 1,000 inhabitants.

The following arrangements are made for running the libraries:

a. In Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka, where there is a special library tax, the village schoolmaster is entrusted with the responsibility of running the library. He is given a small fee for his services.

b. The states of Maharashtra and West Bengal grant subsidies to libraries offering services in towns and villages with more than 5,000 inhabitants, but where the area is already well equipped with public and private libraries, no more subsidies are paid.

c. Similar arrangements are made in some of the other states in India where libraries are predominantly run by

- private institutions; and
- voluntary societies and associations.

The number of members and the quality of work vary from one library to another. The following arrangements are noted:

- Most of those privately or voluntarily run as rural libraries are organized along the same lines as municipal libraries.
- Some are maintained by the voluntary organizations who set them up in the first place.
- Others enjoy a certain amount of support from the government of their state.

d. There are several larger organizations providing library services which are used as LS for the promotion of PL and CE. Some of these, and the types of service they provide, are given below:

- In Kerala, there is one voluntary organization alone-which has more than 4,000 libraries with eight million books and serves approximately one million users. Most of these libraries are situated in rural areas. Those in urban areas do not serve neo-literates alone but also those who have received a formal education.
- In Karnataka, the Council of Adult Education alone has created
  - 12 central libraries;
  - 22 distribution libraries; and
  - approximately 3,000 rural libraries.
- The State of Uttar Pradesh also maintains a network of some 8,850 rural libraries.

e. Some other more interesting innovations that have been adopted to reach neo-literates in remote and less accessible areas have been documented.
Most of these measures have been dictated by the local topography, i.e. the nature of land: whether there are mountains, valleys, rivers to negotiate, etc. Some of these include:
- the use of a bicycle, motorbike, canoe, rickshaw or an animal-drawn conveyance to reach the less accessible places;
- the use of bags, boxes and cases for carrying the books, in order to make the best use of the transport space available.

Literacy House in Lucknow, in another state in India, employs several regular itineraries as a solution to the problem of reaching a large number of villages at a minimum cost. On their rounds, the itinerant librarians carry books to and from neo-literates living in the villages. In order to reach a wider circle of neo-literate readers and to motivate them into continuing to use their literacy skills, mobile libraries are also sent out. One method used to reach large numbers of readers is for these mobile libraries to visit fairs which are held frequently in different parts of the country.

The innovations adopted to bring library services to as many neo-literates as possible in India go beyond the provision of books and libraries alone. Many of the libraries engage in making other facilities available to the neo-literate population:

- Some of the libraries assume the role of Continuing Education Centres - i.e., they offer guidance and support to neo-literates.
- Some operate in conjunction with a Literacy Centre.
- Some libraries organize occasional writers' workshops.
- Others organize discussion sessions for neo-literates.
- A few libraries publish rural newspapers.
- In a few cases, they provide help for neo-literates or for those who have discontinued formal school for some reason, in preparation for examinations.

These examples from India constitute a rich accumulation of ideas which practitioners in other countries can draw upon, depending on local conditions. Practitioners are encouraged to initiate discussions with colleagues as to how some of the ideas presented above could be implemented in their particular area.

Village Libraries in Niger[3]

Niger presents us with a rather modest but nevertheless impressive example of how to make a rural library possible. In this country, the village library directly constitutes one of the programmes belonging to PL activities. At the village level, all these activities come under the umbrella organization known as *Foyers d'Education Permanente* (FEP, Lifelong Education Centres).

The actual running of the library is based on a contract between the village, on the one hand, and the National Literacy Service, on the other. Every village (rural) library adopts the following mode of operation:

- One adult is selected by his peers to run the library.
- The library itself is housed in the teacher's house or the FEP.
- The basic equipment for each library is very simple. It consists of:
  - a wooden or metal box; and
  - a padlock.
- Each library carries a minimum and uniform stock of 30 titles dealing with:
  - technical subjects;
  - cultural themes; and
  - games for learning to read, write and calculate.

In addition to providing neo-literates with reading materials, every rural library performs the following functions:

- it is closely linked to a discussion group which organizes discussions on topical issues;
- the discussion group organizes talks given by visiting specialists;
- it arranges collective reading sessions;
- it also organizes intervillage cultural exchanges which take a variety of forms.

So that the "librarian" is able to supervise all these activities, he is given a week's training to acquaint himself with a few essential rudimentary techniques.

One major difference between rural libraries as a LS in Niger and those in Tanzania is that no external distribution services are arranged. All readers have to come to the centre. This is because of the small number of books available in each library.

Village Reading Centres in Thailand[4]

Originally called Village Newspaper Reading Centres, the name was changed to Village Reading Centres so as to put emphasis on general reading materials, rather than on newspapers alone. These centres represent an important activity of *Thailand's* Nonformal Education Department (NFE) in its effort to alleviate the problem of people relapsing into illiteracy, especially in the rural areas.

The government provides a little financial support (approximately US $ 0.25 a day per village) for the villagers to buy a few newspapers for their villages, as well as providing the Village Reading Centres with other reading materials - some on a regular basis, such as the wall-newspapers and pamphlets from various development service agencies. The wall-newspapers provide readers with basic information and news of government development programmes. A village committee takes charge of running the Village Reading Centre. The committee members undergo a short programme and continue their training through periodic review sessions.

Since libraries are not readily accessible to the more remote populations, many villages are served by motorized mobile libraries, book boxes, or book sacks. Distribution and circulation are carried out by the villagers themselves. The provincial personnel of the NFE deliver the books to the village, pick up the ones from last time, and take them to the next village. These programmes have received increasing support and acceptance by the rural population living in contact areas.

The importance of libraries, and the use made of them, is continually increasing. Throughout the country, students of the Sukhothaithammathiraj Open University find in the library a resource centre. In addition, students of the NFE Radio and Correspondence Education Programme also need a library which they can use for research and study.

Evaluation of library operations has revealed that progress has been slow. Many have neither their own buildings nor a librarian. A large number of library staff need training. In addition, the potential for other uses of the libraries has never been fully realized.

At present, more than 10,000 of Thailand's 68,000 villages have Village Reading Centres, with an estimated 15 to 18 people using each centre daily.

Rural Libraries in Tanzania[5]

Two conditions typify the situation which led to the creation of rural libraries in *Tanzania*:

- there is a severe shortage of reading materials in the country; and
- the distribution network is highly inadequate.

To counteract these difficulties, and in view of the concern to help neo-literates to retain their literacy skills and to use and apply these skills, the following steps were taken to create favourable learning conditions for neo-literates and other potential library users:

- A rural library service was instituted to supplement the work of the Tanzanian Library Services.
- There was a plan to develop an extensive network of 8,000 libraries to cover all Tanzanian villages.
  This plan, which was started on an experimental basis, took off well and now the network is growing.

There are now approximately 3,000 rural libraries spread throughout mainland Tanzania.

- Each of the country's 2,000 wards is now equipped with its own rural libary.
- Each rural library is, up to now, restricted to a box of books designed to attract neo-literates.
- Every rural library is eventually expected to stock up to 500 titles.

Acquisition of Books

For any library anywhere in the world, the acquisition of books is one of the central issues. Tanzania is no exception in this matter. They manage to stock their libraries in the following way:

- Most of the books are acquired from commercial publishers.
- The rest of the books are produced by the Ministry of National Education. They are then placed free of charge at the disposal of the rural libraries.
- Newspapers and all PL material are also made available to the libraries.

Management and Control

One unique feature in Tanzania is that all Tanzanian libraries constitute an integral component of the country's adult education programme.

In view of this, the network is organized in the following way:

- Branches of the library are set up in the more remote areas.
- These libraries are run by literacy teachers whose duties involve:
  - the organization of the library centres;
  - the compilation of monthly and quarterly reports covering:
    - the general running of the centre; and
    - the particular activities on offer there;
    - the replenishment of stocks of books;
    - the provision of counselling services for the readers; and
    - the initiation and organization of discussion groups.

In order to ensure that a certain minimum standard of efficiency is maintained, and that there is uniformity in the library reports, for reasons of comparability, the literacy teachers who run the rural libraries are given:

- an initial two-week course in library techniques; and
- a one-week refresher course every two years.

One of the factors that renders the setting up of a library both difficult and expensive and which, as a result, makes it impossible to provide a library of a "normal" standard, is that concrete requirements must be met - a good building, well-ventilated, with shelves, chairs, tables and a range of facilities. Since it would be futile even proposing these for a rural library, provisional measures are adopted to overcome this problem, making use of buildings that are already there. The rural libraries are, consequently, located in:

- primary schools

- village courthouses
- rooms belonging to other societies
- offices belonging to political parties (note that there is only one party in Tanzania)
- private homes, etc.

To make the library service more widely utilized in almost every village, the rural librarian is provided with a bicycle, and a book-box or bag. With this, he is able to circulate books to even the remote villages. He receives a small bonus for this extra service, which is explained in the diagram on page 222.

Since all the libraries in Tanzania are integrated in the country's adult education programme, each library is linked to a reading circle or club which performs the following functions:

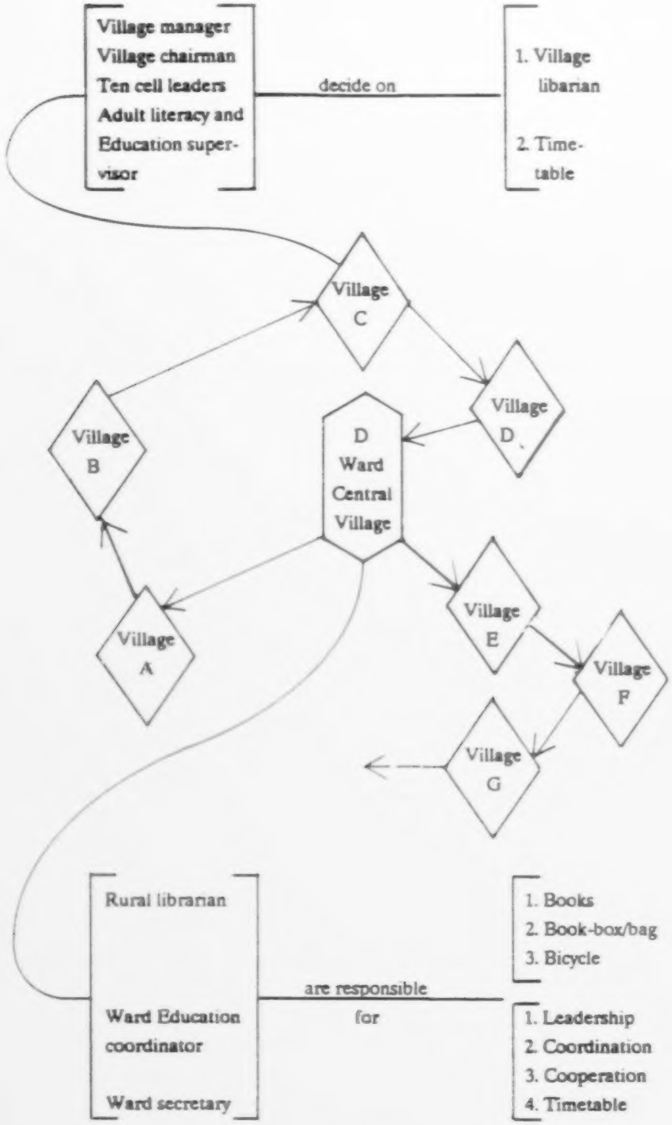
A framework is provided for:

- helping neo-literates understand difficult material;
- discussing the ideas expressed by the author;
- discussing the practical value of the book being read.

The context of the content is discussed, which can help the members in:

- summarizing texts that have been read;
- writing stories themselves;
- collecting and transcribing texts from oral tradition; and
- solving everyday problems in the home, workplace or community.

DISTRIBUTION BY BOOK-BOX/BAG AND BICYCLE


Village manager
Village chairman
Ten cell leaders
Adult literacy and
Education super-
visor
decide on
1. Village
libarian
2. Time-
table
Village C
Village D
Village B
D
Ward
Central
Village
Village A
Village E
Village F
Village G
Rural librarian
Ward Education
coordinator
Ward secretary
are responsible
for
1. Books
2. Book-box/bag
3. Bicycle
1. Leadership
2. Coordination
3. Cooperation
4. Timetable

EXPLANATION OF THE BOOK-BOX/BAG DISTRIBUTION

A book-box/bag is taken to *village A* by the rural librarian. In it, there are also registration lists for membership and borrowing and a list of the books sent. A village librarian is selected by the literacy and adult education supervisor, the village manager, village chairman and ten cell leaders: this exercise is carried out under the chairmanship of the ward secretary together with the ward education coordinator. The rural librarian's timetable is worked out so that he can serve both the ward centre and outlying villages. He will normally visit a sequence of several villages on each tour.

The book-box/bag remains at the village for two weeks; at the end of the second week, all borrowed books should have been read and returned to the village librarian, who collects the book-box/bag, the books and the relevant registers. Once the ward librarian has returned to his ward centre, he makes sure that he has accounted for any discrepancies in the number of books. He then transfers the membership and lending records for each village to the main ward central library's record registers before the book-bag/box begins its journey to other villages.

In order to ensure that books are always available, the ward librarian has to have more than one book-box/bag for each village.

It will be seen that, despite the fact that new buildings cannot be constructed, Tanzania has succeeded in using the means at its disposal to achieve its goal of developing rural libraries, whose impact is now felt in every corner of the country. This should make us re-examine the negative idea that the development of rural libraries is impossible to realize in countries lacking the financial resources to build new libraries, and should act as an incentive for other practitioners to start up their own rural libraries by "thinking small".

Sound Libraries - The Rural Audio-Cassette Libraries in Mali[6]

The creation of a literate environment is one of the major dimensions of PL, particularly in countries with a predominantly oral culture and mode of communication, where written communication is a relatively recent innovation. There is almost a total absence of the printed media in the rural areas inhabited by the majority of neo-literates. The few existing signboards, posters and advertisements are often in international languages which are not the local languages actually in use. *Mali* belongs to such countries, and efforts are being made there to create a dynamic literate environment.

This is being achieved by the assignment of a large number of responsibilities to newly literate farmers (who can perform these tasks using the skills they have recently acquired) and by the increased use of local languages in local, regional and national administration, advertisements, etc.

Setting up sound libraries in the form of rural audio-cassette libraries is one of the main actions being undertaken.

The goal is the socio-economic advancement of rural communities both through traditional knowledge and through the acquisition of modern know-how, especially in the fields of health, animal husbandry, the safeguarding of the environment and the improvement of agriculture.

These audio-cassette libraries are being implemented by the Ministry of Art and Culture, with the help of Unesco.

Objectives

In 1987, 95 villages had been reached by the rural cassette library network. The main objectives of the project are:

- To re-stimulate oral tradition and knowledge embodied in traditional technology, medicine, pharmacology, oral literature and oral history, and to use it as a tool for development by recording it on audio-cassette and disseminating it for use locally, regionally and nationally.
- To use aural techniques to introduce neo-literates and even illiterate adult and young people to science and technology, which are essential for the improvement of their living conditions.
- To use official orthographic norms to transcribe the content of the tapes recorded. This function of the sound libraries helps to preserve the oral tradition and to provide the neo-literates with reading materials drawn from the recordings. These publications, which are culture-based, considerably widen the range of the traditional reading material available to the neo-literates.
- To disseminate local culture, traditions and songs on the one hand, and small reading booklets on general topics

and extension themes for development and change on the other.

- To create conditions for better co-ordination and integration of rural development by organizing study and discussion groups.
- To form a cassette library committee, select and train five to six librarians in each village, of whom two should be women.
- To involve development agencies in the production of cassettes dealing with technical development subjects and issues.

In carrying out the project, two major concerns have been kept in view:

a. the search for the support of political and administrative leaders for the aims and objectives of the project, the involvement of field development workers, and the participation of the rural population itself;

b. the careful selection of the village library site through preliminary socio-economic surveys using the following criteria: (i) acceptance of previous innovations and new structures by the village; (ii) existence of a school and a dispensary; and (iii) the possibility of neighbouring villages using the library.

Training of the Personnel Involved

The training of field workers comprises rural leadership and group dynamics, literacy, the techniques for the collection and recording of oral traditions, the maintenance and servicing of equipment and, finally, first-aid. Between 1982 and 1986, 24 training workshops were organized. Seven of these were held in Bamako to train demonstrators and trainers. In addition, 285 workshops were held at village cassette libraries for cassette librarians, as well as introductory workshops for the oral traditions committees, which have a membership of 2,000.

Researchers, demonstrators, documentalists and the director of the project have all benefited from training workshops. Transcribers and equipment maintenance technicians too have received training.

Functioning

The demonstrators who carry out the research into local knowledge are put in charge of rural cassette libraries. They are chosen on account of their good knowledge of the local language, both written and oral. They live in the area and are in charge of co-ordinating and supervising activities of the local cassette libraries and training the village level librarians and members of the local oral tradition committee.

In order to prepare appropriate teaching materials, they carry out research on the information and technical services needed by the local villagers.

The oral knowledge committee consists of 12 to 20 persons and is given responsibility for organizing the activities of the cassette libraries. The cassette librarians, a small committee of five to six members of the oral knowledge committee, are unpaid volunteers who organize collective listening sessions. They collect and record the traditional oral knowledge and know-how of the local population. They are also responsible for the maintenance of the equipment and the library holdings of cassette recordings. Meetings of cassette librarians have been organized by linguistic areas in order to facilitate the exchange of knowledge and experience.

Results obtained

Some 260 cassettes have been produced and recorded in eight languages in cooperation with the technical services and according to the expressed needs of the rural populations.

The following is the breakdown of the types of cassette recorded:

Health/Hygiene	77
Agriculture	73
Animal Husbandry	22
Appropriate Technology	6
Education	34
Sub-total	212
Other	48
Total	260

The researcher-demonstrators have recorded 575 cassettes in their work of preserving the cultural heritage. Among these, 72 deal with traditional medicine.

Collective listening sessions have been organized around the cassettes produced by the technical services in order to permit the local populations to acquire fundamental notions on the subject of agriculture, such as:

- the preparation of land for cultivation;
- the use of fertilizers;
- crop protection;
- new varieties of seeds;
- fencing and enclosures;
- animal feed;

- pastures;
- protection of the environment; and
- deforestation and reforestation.

They also learn about health and hygiene:

- individual and public health;
- the establishment of village pharmacies; and
- the fight against major diseases.

In the social domain, cassettes have been produced on:

- marriage;
- taxation;
- the harmful nature of drugs; and
- marital harmony.

In addition to their work with cassettes, the researcher-demonstrators have initiated or supported communal actions at the grass-roots level, such as the clearing of pathways; small irrigation works, barrages and bunds; the digging of wells; and the cultivation of vegetable gardens in common, to meet the costs of batteries, and the repair of equipment. This community level action was undertaken with the help of the World Food Programme.

Constraints

Supervision of the national audio-cassette libraries is very difficult. Field missions are rare after the experts have left, and the villagers become discouraged during the lengthy absences of the researcher-demonstrators.

The contacts with the technical services have been hesitant. There are more cassettes on traditional knowledge than on modern techniques, especially in languages other than the two major national languages, Bambara and Peulh. They are the most widely spoken languages in Mali.

Three stages were envisaged for the project: recording, transcription and publication, but the second and the third stages have only been realized to a very limited extent.

The personnel of the project have become involved in a new project on audio-visual techniques with financial support of FAO/UNDP and the Ministry of Arts, and interest in the audio-cassette project has declined or been deflected towards the new project.

It is obvious that several LESSONS CAN BE LEARNT FROM THIS EXPERIENCE:

- the importance of follow-up action in field projects;
- the difficulties of working in several languages;
- the necessity of integrating education, communication and mobilization activities of the appropriate technical agencies and the co-ordination and integration of the action of these agencies.

The Science Museum in Thailand[7]

The Centre for Educational Museums is one of seven organizations belonging to *Thailand's* Nonformal Education Department (NFE). This centre is responsible for organizing activities aimed at disseminating the various types of information required by rural and urban people of all ages and both sexes for continuing self-discovery learning. One such programme conducted by the centre is the *Science Museum*.

The Science Museum provides an open classroom environment with enough freedom to enhance the individual's quest for knowledge. In such a situation individuals can think, explore, observe, experiment, read, and discover by themselves in any chosen subject. A learner can study as long and as often as he wishes. The museum creates the feeling that one has at one's disposal a huge source of information which one can use to further knowledge and perception.

The Science Museum of the NFE aims at providing people of all ages and educational levels with a knowledge of science and technology in order to foster equal opportunities for study and self-learning. Efforts are being made to organize exhibits relating to basic and applied science, and explanations are provided concerning the physical and biological sciences.

Owing to limitations of space, the selected topics in applied science are transportation, population, man and energy. About 20 per cent of the space within the museum is made available for special exhibitions, which are changed every two or three months. In addition to this, there is outdoor space for botanical gardens, recreation, and various technology exhibitions. Occasionally, a science fair is organized, and other outdoor activities are also available.

Most exhibits are designed to be operated by visitors. Attempts are made to make science as simple as possible, so that it can be perceived as part of the individual's life. The main aims are self-learning and freedom in learning. Complicated processes are explained in terms of cause and effect and made more interesting and easy to learn. The quality of an exhibition is judged by its content and appropriateness from academic, technological and psychological viewpoints.

According to the records, the museum has served over 500,000 visitors in about 250 days.

Mobile Science Exhibitions in Thailand[8]

People who live outside the city are naturally deprived of the educational opportunity provided by the Science Museum in Thailand. Mobile exhibitions are therefore seen as an important supplementary service. The mobile exhibition unit travels to the people. Though a mobile unit cannot serve as a complete substitute for a museum, it can still provide important knowledge which may eventually lead to the development and application of creativity in the individual.

Objectives

The Science Museum of the NFE has for many years organized mobile exhibitions. The idea behind this is to bring useful science and technology to the rural population. The main purpose of the mobile exhibition is to stimulate curiosity. Opportunities for people to acquire useful and up-to-date information and knowledge in both the natural sciences and technology are essential if they are to continue to develop as productive, self-directed, and continuous learners. Educational services as such must be made attractive and located in places which are convenient for the population. These services must be varied to be able to respond to the different interests and needs of people of all ages.

Operational Aspects

The exhibits are displayed in boxes housed in a trailer. Each trailer carries approximately 24 to 28 boxes, each of which covers one complete theme. To organize an effective mobile exhibition team, one must take into consideration the viewers' preferences, background and problems. The topics and designs must be appropriate and of high quality. The unit may also organize libraries, demonstrations of rural technology, creative mathematics or science games, the showing of slides, lectures, discussions, question and answer sessions, and various kinds of competition. The personnel must also possess discipline, alertness, meticulousness, responsibility and team spirit.

At present, the NFE is seeking financial help from the government as well as from private enterprise companies such as Esso and Caltex in order to form five mobile exhibition teams which would serve the five regions of the country.

The first unit was completed and held its first exhibition in Bangkok in 1982 during the city's bicentennial celebration. Then, from July to October, the unit toured the north-east. The main theme presented was "Water for Life". More than 100,000 people saw the exhibition during the four-month tour.

The criteria used in the design of the unit's exhibition are the same as those used in the Science Museum: simplicity, clarity, attractiveness, and visitors' involvement. Nevertheless, it is hardly possible for a small unit to provide as much public involvement as a large museum does. Experimentation that needs fragile, expensive, and complicated equipment cannot be carried out in the mobile unit. Such equipment cannot be transported safely over what is sometimes difficult terrain. To offset this limitation, the unit has organized various supplementary features such as a book corner and film shows.

The importance of the role played by science museums in bringing people closer to education will hopefully by now be self-evident. It stimulates them to search for knowledge and answers. Mobile units will help people to become more knowledgeable and to make further progress. They offer a unique experience for rural people who may never have had a chance before to understand the environment in which they live.

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Chapter 7

Traditional Folk Media and Games as Learning Strategies

The LS discussed under this category happen to share certain common features:

- They form a set of activities that have been associated with most of the cultures in the Third World, and people are very familar with them.
- They have been popularly used and accepted for centuries.
- They have been developed as part of the oral culture, as opposed to the written culture.
- They are usually organized on a nonformal basis and tend to be used traditionally for the purpose of entertainment. Therefore, used as learning devices, they are likely to be misconstrued as being merely for entertainment.
- All of them contain elements which appeal to certain human values. These can be more fully exploited in PL and CE programmes today.

Because of this, we need to give much thought to these activities when using them as LS for the promotion of PL and CE. There is a great danger of participants regarding them as mere entertainment. However, it is this very entertainment quality which renders them an educationally sound strategy because it helps to put learners into a psychologically relaxed frame of mind. This can then be used to help them absorb the learning material much more easily.

It is believed that if these strategies are used in a multimedia situation, i.e. if they are utilized in conjunction with other media, it will give them more power as LS.

The main advantage in using traditional media, games and sports activities is that they:

- draw directly on local resources, traditions and folk wisdom;
- help keep neo-literates in touch with their own local culture so that they can see the use of literacy skills;
- reinforce the psychologically sound theory that because the neo-literate already possesses the necessary background to what is to be coded in written communication, what is read becomes more meaningful to him;
- are inexpensive, and are thus viable for remote areas where financing may be a problem.

Other advantages are that:

- they encourage a two-way intensive interaction which plays down the distinction between teacher and learner, audience and communicator, leader and follower, creating a healthy situation for dialogue, since two or more people engaged in the PL episode are on equal terms;
- all parties involved search for understanding or an agenda for action;

- there is a shared exploration of ideas and experiences;
- these media provide an open and joint learning venture, with no hidden agendas.

Use of the Traditional Media as LS[1]

The popular communication media utilize a number of devices to ensure that the attitudes, values and beliefs of the people are taken fully into account. Many of them serve at the same time as entertainment for the population and as a means of oral expression, in which their problems are presented through drama.

There is now a reasonable amount of documentation on the role of the popular media and their use as major channels of communication to increase the awareness of communities at the grass-roots level, and to encourage these communities to change their attitudes towards certain innovations and to contribute actively and on their own initiative to the search for original and viable solutions to problems. What is central to the use of the traditional media is the understanding of a given culture and how this can be used to motivate individuals into taking social action. There are as many heterogeneous examples of folk communications as there are national and local communities in different regions.

Educators do not yet make sufficient use of this LS in PL, although a few countries have recorded their use of this rich resource. These examples are presented below.

The main way in which the folk media have been used is through folklore, theatre, traditional dances, puppets, songs (dirges, ballads, etc.) legends, proverbs, riddles, etc., which rely on oral tradition.

Use of Folk Drama for PL and CE in India[2]

The rich cultural heritage of *India* is used for the continuing education of neo-literates. Various forms are applied in different parts of this vast country. One of the forms described in the case study is that used in the *Roopayan Sansthan* (Institute of Popular Theatre) at Borundha (RS).

The primary objective of RS is the preservation and diffusion of traditional cultural forms but this archival collection of oral tradition and objects of art is also used for the education for neo-literates. The collection contains hours of recordings of songs, ballads, tales, legends and proverbs.

The approach adopted involves:

- a systematic selection of the art forms and traditions;
- editing these to eliminate some of the "retrogressive" elements depicting negative values such as intolerance, segregation and manipulation;
- presentation of the "acceptable" version;
- transcribing the material into written language for preservation and use, not only by neo-literates but also by the general public.

Some interesting features emerging from this exercise are that:

- it constitutes an impetus for creativity, thus giving rise to new forms and topical content;

- it has resulted in RS already publishing some 20 volumes of roughly 500 pages each;
- smaller publications have been adapted from these volumes specifically for the use of neo-literates.

The main objectives are:

- to entertain learners while educating them;
- to create a new awareness in them without making them feel inadequate;
- to help the learners trace their heritage, without the animator seeming superior to them.

Popular Education Through Peasants' Theatre and Fairs in Bolivia[3]

A good example of combining folk media and modern media for the purpose of encouraging active participation of the audience may be seen in the *Aymara Peasants' Theatre* in *Bolivia*.

This is the procedure they adopt. Each month:

- a *campesino* (peasant farmer) community is selected as the location for an educational fair;
- this is organized and coordinated in cooperation with community leaders;
- the fair is publicized on the radio, in the local language (Aymara);
- members of the community and neighbouring communities are invited to participate;

- various types of folk activity take place such as dancing, Aymara drama, band contests, intercommunity sports competitions, agricultural shows, simulation games, etc.;
- recordings of this are made, using electronic media (radio, film and video cassette).

The advantages of this mixture of tradition and modernity are that:

- people can utilize the fairs to present their own achievements;
- campesinos can be motivated to participate in similar activities in the future;
- participants are enabled to talk about their own activities.

SENALEP *(Servicio Nacional de Alfabetización y Educación Popular)* uses traditional fairs, on the other hand, to:

- promote government educational and health programmes; and
- encourage and refine the practice of folk medicine.

Supporting PL and CE through the Cultural Development Programme in Brazil[4]

In *Brazil*, the operational cultural units in charge of the implementation of the *Cultural Development Programme* played an appreciable role through the MOBRAL programme by encouraging and organizing folk dances, singing and drama within the framework of cultural programme sessions.

The main aim was to:

- preserve traditional cultural values;
- stimulate spontaneous and original ways of expressing these values;
- make the neo-literate aware of cultural heritage within the local communities;
- consolidate this awareness through educational activities;
- transform such cultural heritage into real potential for national development.

The programme emphasized:

- the conservation of an artistic heritage; and
- the aesthetic education of individuals.

Indigenous Popular Education in Ecuador[5]

The *Macac Project* in *Ecuador*, sponsored by the Ministry of Education and the Catholic University of Quito, concentrates on literacy and the initial education of the Quichua population. To encourage the development of the culture and traditions of the people, the project:

- gives special importance to the participation of the indigenous population;
- encourages the presentation of their cultural heritage and ancestral wisdom;
- involves local traditional healers in the programmes;
- aims, through dialogue with the people, at a re-evaluation of traditional medicine, in getting the authorities to

respect this medicine and the people to look more objectively at traditional medicine.

Community Theatre for Integrated Rural Development in Sierra Leone

An account of a workshop on *Community Theatre for Integrated Rural Development* held at Telu, Sierra Leone, in 1986, was subsequently presented by David Malamah-Thomas of the Institute of Adult Education and Extra-Mural Studies of the University of Sierra Leone in Freetown, in the *International Review of Education*. The following report is an edited extract.[6]

Background of the Project

In consonance with its main focus on Community Education for the next triennium, the Institute of Adult Education and Extra-Mural Studies, Fourah Bay College, University of Sierra Leone, mounted from 2-16 November, 1986 a two-week regional workshop for the eastern and southern provinces on Community Theatre for Integrated Rural Development (CTHIRD) at Telu and in three operational neighbouring villages in the Bo District. It was the first "experiment" in the use of theatre education and conscientization in Sierra Leone.

There were four categories of participants: (a) Development and extension workers from Government Ministries and Departments, from NGO's, local as well as international (WP's), (b) Village participants (VP's) selected for their interest, motivation and commitment to village and community development, (c) Local Liaison Persons (LLP's) chosen for their knowledge and understanding of the socio-economic realities of the three operational villages and (d) Resource Persons (RP's) selected for their expertise, perceptiveness and adaptability.

The workshop objectives included: (i) Initiating workshop and village participants (WP's and VP's) in the theory and practice of theatre for community education and conscientization and mobilization for action; (ii) Teaching WP's to respect villagers, to listen to them, to learn about their problems and together with them to incorporate and present the problems in creative dramatizations so as to involve the villagers in community introspection, and analysis and collective action; (iii) Conducting practical "hands-on" sessions on village-based theatre involving the WP's, VP's and LLP's in the process of establishing rapport and mutual confidence, problem identification, data collection and analysis, story improvisation, performance design, drama making, pre- and post-performance discussions with the communities generating positive action, evaluation and follow-up strategies; and (iv) Assessing the effectiveness of the workshop methodologies as a stimulus to conscientization and a strategy for community-based adult education, community and rural development.

The workshop methodologies were characteristically flexible, participatory, non-directive and experiential in terms of (a) themes and (b) theatrical techniques. The people's folk media and art forms - music, singing, drumming and dancing, miming etc. - were the "raw materials" for the workshop's activities.

Pre-Workshop Exploratory Missions

Within a month before the starting of the workshop, there were three missions sent to Telu (the workshop headquarters), some 15 miles from Bo and also to the three operational villages - Baomahun, Gbama and Mendekama, which were designated as workshop villages 1, 2 and 3. These villages were situated 2 or 3 miles away from Telu respectively. The main objectives of the missions were to consult the Paramount Chief and Elders of the Jaiama Bongor chiefdom, to select the three operational villages, to prepare the minds of the villagers and to explain the rationale, objectives and methodologies of the workshop.

The Two-week Telu Workshop

The first two days, 2nd and 3rd November, 1986, were devoted to the finalization of the draft circularized work programme and included introduction of WP's to the crucial elements of African drama. The formal opening was on Tuesday 4th November, after which WP's were divided into three groups and together with the LLP's and RP's as Group Leaders proceeded to their respective villages. November 5th-7th were devoted to problem identification, data collection and analysis, and also drama-making. The main methods of information/data collection were the homestead and performance techniques and the interview method. The information collected was discussed with the villagers to gain an in-depth understanding. Problems identified were prioritized and story lines formed around problems and issues which were generalized and community-specific. Each group presented its first production on Saturday, November 8th, and the productions highlighted the principal community problems and issues. Post-first performance discussions ensued and on Saturday 9th all the groups assembled at Telu for a plenary session, group reports and discussion of strategies for the workshop's second week. The groups departed the same evening to their respective villages and, together with the village communities, they worked out likely solutions to the problems around which the second productions on Wednesday 12th November were based.

The second productions were followed by post-performance discussions with the villagers. The following day was devoted to rehearsals and to innovative swop-performances - village 1 performed in village 2, village 2 in village 3 and village 3 performed in village 1. Then there were "post-swop" performance discussions with the villagers. The final performances - combining the identified problems and likely solutions - were staged at Telu on Friday 14th November and these were videotaped thanks to the generosity of the German Adult Education Association's Freetown Office. Saturday 15th November was the workshop's last day and was spent on workshop evaluation, group reports and discussions, resolutions, recommendations, conclusions and follow-up strategies.

It was the consensus among WP's, LLP's and RP's that some, but certainly not all of the workshop's objectives were achieved. Foremost among these was that the villagers became conscious of their socio-economic and other realities and began to think retrospectively, introspectively and prospectively in terms of collective community mobilization and action. A few of the outcomes of the two-week workshop were: (a) proposals to establish amateur theatre and youth groups in the operational villages under the direction of the LLP's and the VP's who actually participated in the dramatizations and (b) collective action in solving the dramatized community problems such as the construction of pit latrines and water wells to reduce the incidence of diarrhoea and other water-related diseases.

The workshop organizers solemnly pledged that they would establish programmes and projects in collaboration with national and international development agencies to solve some of the most pressing community problems which had been identified.

Telu Workshop Learning Experiences

The entire Theatre for Development (TFD) workshop process from the first stage of establishing rapport and mutual confidence to the last of the planning follow-up was a holistic learning experience. The improvizations of village participants clearly and naturally brought to light some underlying contradictions and rationalizations, revealing the "pushing" and "blocking" factors in village development. Rehearsals and performances and post-performance discussions resulted in new and valuable perspectives, and the plays kept changing as the understanding of the actors and onlookers deepened. The constant dialogue with, and participation of the villagers produced what Kidd has called "transformational drama", which enhanced the process of awareness creation as opposed to the villagers merely watching and discussing ready-made plays produced by interventionists.

At the end of the workshop, the WP's, mainly development workers in agriculture, health, family planning, cooperatives etc., were also conscientized into realizing that they were working with and not for the villagers. This was a welcome challenge to their top-down, authoritarian and technocratic conditioning and communication modes: in operational terms, while they facilitated and catalyzed the entire workshop's conscientizing and enabling process they became animators rather than directors.

Some Workshop Lessons

a. Theatre for Development (TFD) requires absolute and unconditional respect for the "native intelligence" of the villagers and demands patient listening to the village elders and members as they identify, analyse and attempt to solve their pressing problems. TFD is based on genuine participation on the part of the researchers and the researched and has in-built feedback mechanisms which make it a very effective two-way participatory research and communication tool.

b. Villagers may be illiterate in English, but they are certainly not ignorant, stupid or unintelligent. The equation illiteracy = ignorance in the context of TFD is most erroneous.

c. One does not need to be literate to participate actively in the new genre of theatre as a means to promote one's own development.

d. TFD is a learning and teaching exercise and it is an educational, enabling, mobilizing and transformational tool for development.

e. It can breed inter-village as well as intra-village solidarity and unity, most conspicuously observed in the "swop" performances.

Above all, no TFD process, certainly not the Telu model, can claim to be prescriptive, for there are many ways of conducting TFD dramatizations - this was clearly the case among the three operational groups, whose styles and methods were significantly different. Development workers are invited to borrow or steal whatever seems useful. They will need to work out their own workshop strategies and methodologies in consonance with local objectives, operational circumstances and resources.

In the final reckoning, Theatre for Development is not transferable from one country to another, not even from one region to another. It cannot simply be plugged into a new context. It is a highly complex and scientific process and needs to be consciously and carefully tailored to each situation.

The Use of Games and Sports as LS

Although formal schools have exploited the value of games and sports as tools for learning, and various cultures have used games and sporting activities as a method of education, it is only recently that PL programmes have begun to make use of games for educational purposes. Two forms have been indentified:

- the revival of group games which are already intended for education of children, young persons and adults: in this case new functions are given to proven methods; and a conscious effort is made to respond to newly emerging demands.
- the creation of new games by adapting these to local methods and local context.

Playing games is generally linked with social activities, and reflects both attitudes to life and also the demands of the immediate environment. Playing games goes hand-in-hand with work, learning and relaxation. In an analysis of the pedagogical potential of African games, Obanya wrote that "African games are mastered and internalized to enable each person to communicate with his peer group, to enable each person to adapt to changing roles in society and to enable each person to become an integral part of his environment. Games therefore contribute to enculturation in traditional African societies and thus perform an essential function of educating both the young and the old."[7] Such functions are perceptible in most social games and make them useful tools for exploring traditional modes of interaction, traditional technology and traditional methods of learning which are all put to use to achieve participation in development and changes. Some examples are presented below:

Games Used in PL in Niger[8]

In Niger, a series of five games has been developed specifically for the purposes of literacy and PL. These were developed from:

- three traditional forms which were already widespread throughout the country; and
- two European group games adapted to the Niger context.

They are designed to:

- facilitate the composition of phrases;
- consolidate reading skills and abilities;
- reinforce the habits of reflection and clear reasoning.

The games are led by the instructor of the Literacy Centre.

MOBRAL Games in Brazil[9]

In its PL programmes, *Brazil* makes use of games, sports and physical education in an educational context to consolidate skills such as coordination and accuracy, dexterity, concentration, etc. However, the objectives for their use are essentially:

- to create a certain atmosphere conducive to learning and participation; and
- to preserve the cultural heritage.

With regard to physical education in particular, the programme is coordinated with cultural folk activities (folk media) in order to emphasize the use and role of appropriate technology. This includes the local preparation and assembly of materials, parts and equipment used in sports, games and other physical activities.

Talking Maps in Colombia[10]

The *Fundación Colombiana Nuestra* (People's Colombia Foundation) has developed a unique scheme for the indigenous Páez communities of Valle del Cauca.

They are encouraged to rediscover and reconstruct their own history. This takes the form of group work in which a portrayal of certain activities on a chart is used to compare contemporary daily life with life as it was in the past.

The programme is followed by an intensive discussion. The project is called *Talking Maps*.

Other interesting examples

The *Alforja Group* in *Costa Rica* has recently published an excellent graphic summary with nearly 100 games and simulations in which adults perform and share multiple roles drawn from real life situations.[11]

In *Cuba*, physical sports and recreational education are conceived as an integral part of cultural and educational development, with the objective of searching for a harmonious development of man's full potential.[12]

This emphasis is due to the recognition of the positive influence which physical education, sports and leisure can have on the constitution of the character and personality of the new generation.

Sports activities within the framework of physical education are seen as necessary to complement:

- general education;
- aesthetic and moral education; and
- vocational education, etc.

THE BENEFITS OF USING TRADITIONAL MEDIA AND GAMES

The use of folk media, sports and games offers many possibilities in PL and CE.

The attractiveness of both form and content render them important strategies for learning.

They also help to:
- establish interpersonal contact;
- successfully deliver their messages in an impersonal manner;
- play a significant role in winning over participants for the programme;
- help those who are hesitating to get involved; and finally:
- constitute major channels for helping individuals understand their environment better.

Illustrations of PL Learning Games

On the following pages examples are reproduced from *Zambia*, *Indonesia*, the *Asian Cultural Centre for Unesco* (ACCU) (Tokyo) and the South Pacific:

Illustration 10. Learning through "Nsolo"
p. 257-258
Illustration 11. "Bintang Anda" Healthy Water Supply Game
p. 259-261
Illustration 12. Proverb Card Game
p. 262-267
Illustration 13. Nutrition Snakes and Ladders
p. 268-270

LEARNING THROUGH "NSOLO": A GAME FROM ZAMBIA

The game is played by one player on each side, two players, three players, etc.

Materials used

Four lines of 12 holes are dug either on the ground or drilled in a plank. The holes must be parallel to each other.

Put on each of the outside holes two pebbles or stones and two on the first two of the holes going out clockwise, and one stone in the next hole.

The play

The game often begins with any of the players picking the first two stones, and distributing as follows: one on the next hole and when the last one is to be put, you pick all the three pebbles and distribute them. The process is the same until your pebbles land on an empty hole. The other player plays his game in the same manner. Thereafter, the game is in play. In the player's moves, the player must count well so that he lands on an empty hole. Where the opponent has pebbles in the inside lane: you pick the pebbles as they are said to be inactive. If both the inside and outside hole have pebble on your opponent's side, then you pick both the inside and outside hole and one additional pick from any hole. When you inactivate your opponent's pebbles you pick from three holes including the hole where you land.

Where a player has all his remaining pebbles, one per hole, the player moves one pebble at a time. Such a player, if he counts well, can be a winner but is disadvantaged to his opponent.

The game comes to an end when a player has all his pebbles finished.

Rules

1. Play must begin with the pebbles in the first hole.
2. No single pebbles can be moved where you have two or more pebbles in another hole; where the remaining pebbles are one per hole.
3. All pebbles must be put away from the holes.

Educational values

1. The game can be utilised as a counterpart to chess.
2. It develops the thinking of children as they play.
3. It can be used in mathematics - additions and subtractions.
4. It can be used as a pass time game.
5. It is cost free.

Source: Tembo, S. "Learning through Nsolo: a Game from Zambia". In *Pedagogical Possibilities of African Games*. Morges: WCOPT/CMOPE, 1987, pp. 44-45.

BINTANG ANDA GAME EXAMPLE

Healthy Water Supply

Game Objective: After playing the game participants will be able to describe the important aspects of a healthy water supply and understand why clean water is necessary to community health. Participants will also learn about how to provide and maintain a healthy water supply.

Participants: 10-15, including 3 role players (Village Head, Sanitarian, and Sub-District Head), and 5-6 players. Others present, including resource persons, serve as observers or referees who can be included in game discussions at any time.

Materials: Playing board (approximately 60 x 80 cm.), message cards, die or number cards for turn determination.

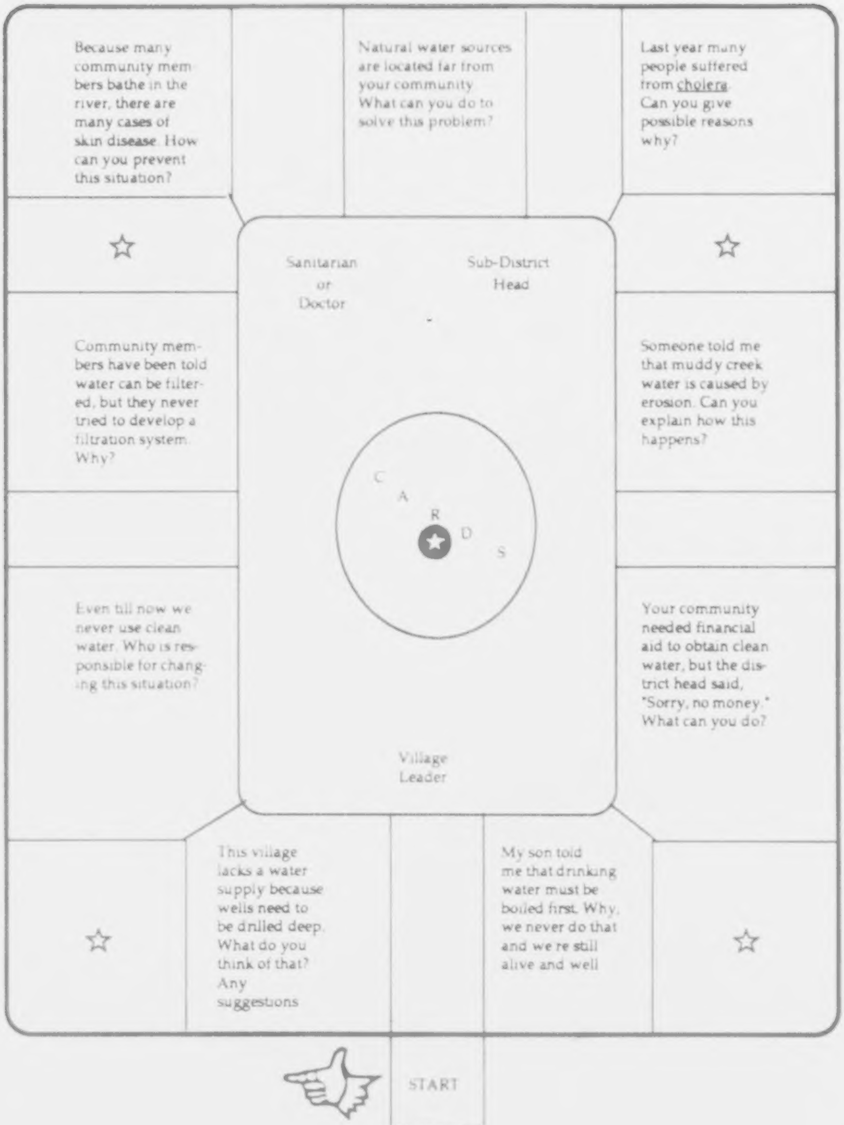
Procedure:

1. Determine the players and their pieces;
2. Assign persons to role play Village Head, Sanitarian/Doctor, and Sub-District Head;
3. Players take turns rolling the die and advance around the board the number of steps indicated;
4. When a player's piece stops at a box containing either a message or an event description, the player reads aloud what the box contains. The player facilitates discussion and invites opinions of role players, other players, or audience;
5. If a player's piece lands on a Bintang Anda box, the player draws one of the Bintang Anda cards and reads what is on the back of the card. The player facilitates discussion and gets the opinions of role players and observers. If another player lands on the same box, he also draws a different Bintang Anda card for discussion. (Literates in the playing group may do the reading for illiterate participants.)
6. The game continues until either:
   --one player completes the board;
   --all players complete the board;
   --consensus is reached that the game is over.
7. If time permits, important points that came up during the game are pursued through further discussion;
8. Time: 1-2 hours or as time permits.

BINTANG AND A GAME

for

HEALTHY WATER SUPPLY



Because many community members bathe in the river, there are many cases of skin disease. How can you prevent this situation?

Natural water sources are located far from your community. What can you do to solve this problem?

Last year many people suffered from cholera. Can you give possible reasons why?

Community members have been told water can be filtered, but they never tried to develop a filtration system. Why?

Someone told me that muddy creek water is caused by erosion. Can you explain how this happens?

Even till now we never use clean water. Who is responsible for changing this situation?

Your community needed financial aid to obtain clean water, but the district head said, "Sorry, no money." What can you do?

This village lacks a water supply because wells need to be drilled deep. What do you think of that? Any suggestions

My son told me that drinking water must be boiled first. Why, we never do that and we're still alive and well

Messages on Bintang Anda Cards: Healthy Water Supply Game

1. Can you explain what cholera is? What is the relationship between cholera and dirty water?
2. Extension efforts to improve the water supply have been made, but with poor results. Why?
3. Why are vaccination programs necessary in the village?
4. The community has approached the informal leaders to help solve the water supply problem, but with poor results. Why? What can be done to influence them to assist?
5. We have made efforts to improve the health of our water supply, but the problem still remains. Why? What else can we do?
6. Many village leaders have been trained to install water filtration systems, but with no results. Why? Ask the Village Head.
7. Have you tried to analyze your community efforts to improve the water supply? Why have they failed?
8. Do you know how to create a water filtration system? If not, who do you ask about such things? How do you approach him?
9. The building of latrines has been suggested, but nothing has happened. Why?
10. The community still disposes of trash wherever it pleases. What do you think of this? Why? What can be done?
11. The educational level of the community is low, with much illiteracy. How do you feel if you are illiterate? What needs to be done do improve the situation? Does illiteracy affect community health? Why?
12. Do you have any ideas on how to motivate people to participate in programs to improve the water supply?
13. Information and vaccination campaigns have been implemented, but the results have not been good. Why?
14. Your child is sick. Someone told you that it was because of a hidden creature bothering him inside. Do you believe this?
15. Your child is sick. Someone told you it was because he bathed everyday in the river. Can this be true? What relationship could there be between bathing in the river and sickness?

Source: Marzuki, S. and Dilts, R. *Bintang Anda: A Game Process for Community Development.* Amherst, Massachusetts: Center for International Education, University of Massachusetts, 1982, p. 3 (Technical Note 18).

PROVERB CARD GAME

Objectives:

1. To develop moral awareness and wisdom by learning proverbs.
2. To build language skills while playing enjoyable game.

Target:

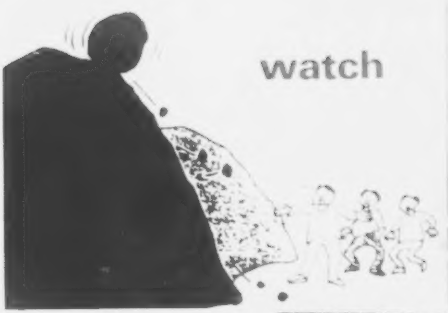
Middle and self-learning level neo-literates.

Applications:

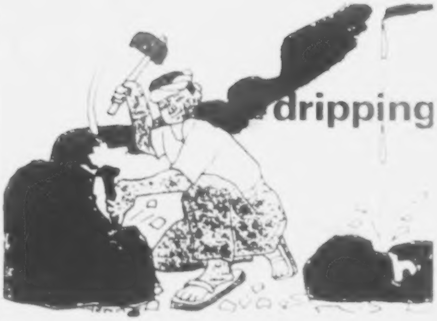
1. Instructor explains how to play card game.
   - * How to play card game (This game gan be played by 3 or more players.)
   - a. This card game uses 30 "Text Cards" and 30 "Picture Cards".
   - b. A proverb is on each "Text Card". On each "Picture Card" appears a word taken from the corresponding proverb and a picture representing the proverb.
   - c. To begin, all "Picture Cards" are spread randomly on the floor or table-top. Players sit freely around the cards.
   - d. One person reads a "Text Cards" aloud, and the other players pick up "Picture Cards".
   - e. The reader shuffles the "Text Cards", then chooses one and reads it aloud. The other players all look for the corresponding "Picture Card".
   - f. The player who most quickly identifies the corresponding "Picture Card" picks it up. The holder of the most cards is the winner.
2. Learners form groups and start playing card game.

3. After the game, points of interest are taken up in question-and-answer and discussion among participants (including instructor).

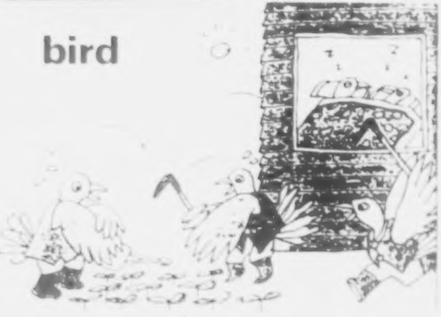
Source: Asian Cultural Centre for Unesco (ACCU). Illustrated by Kang Woo Hyun (Rep. of Korea).



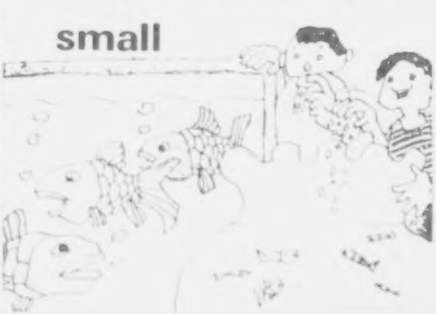
watch



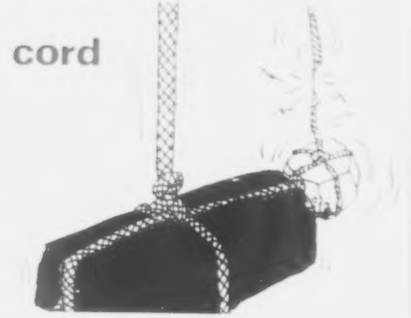
dripping



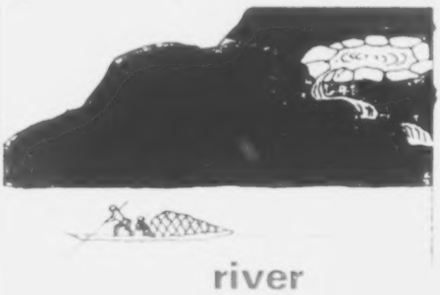
bird



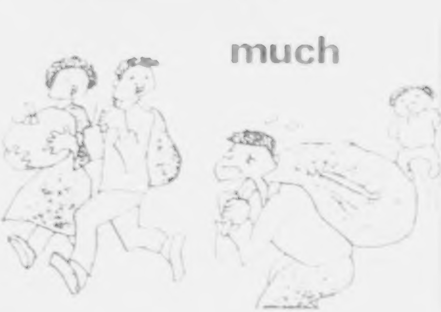
small



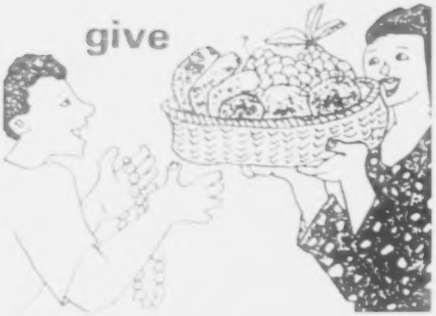
cord



river

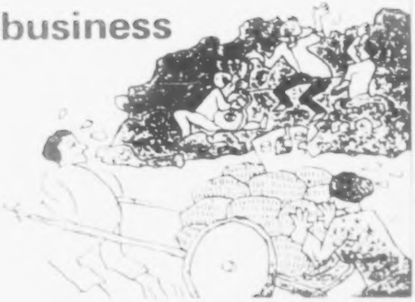


much

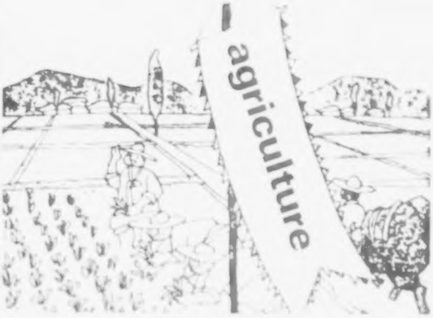


give

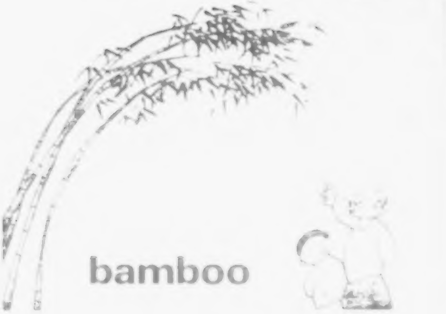
Constant dripping wears **away the stone**.	**Give** and take.
A threefold **cord** is not easily broken.	More than enough is too **much**.
Watch well, prevent misfortune.	Early **bird** catches the worm.
A **river** needs a spring.	From **small** beginnings come great things.



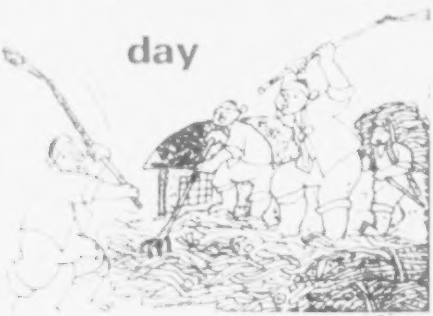
business



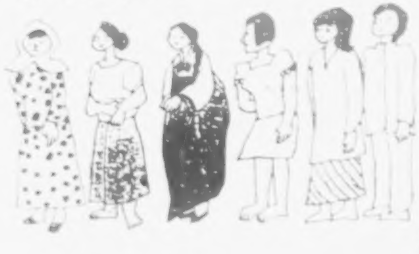
agriculture



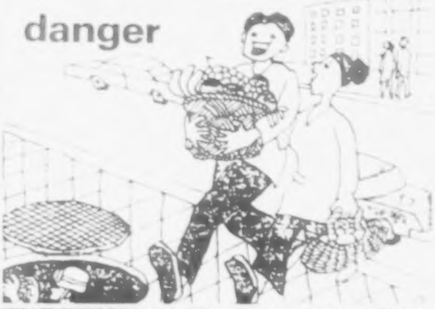
bamboo



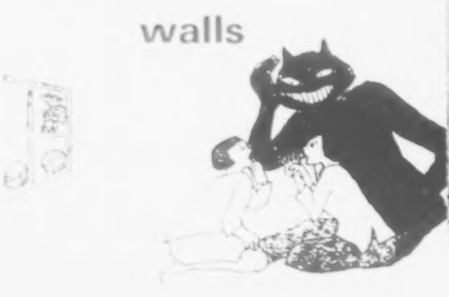
day



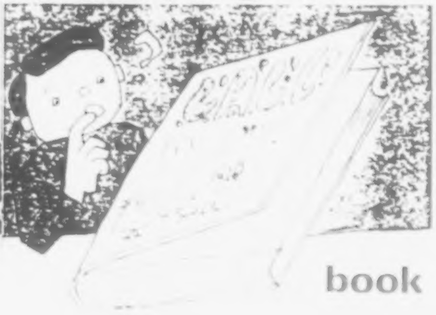
customs



danger



walls



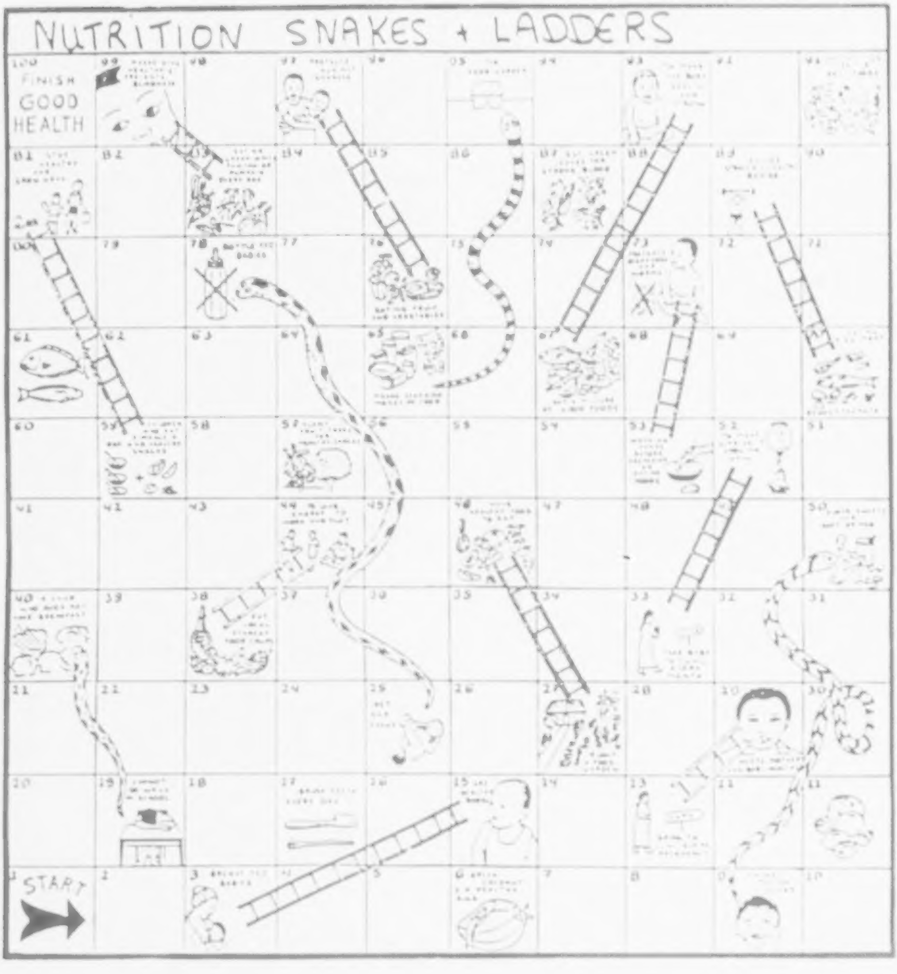
book

Danger is next-door neighbour to security	Pictures are the **books** of the unlearned.
Agriculture is the prop of the country.	**Walls** have ears.
Business before pleasure.	So many countries, so many **customs**.
The **day** is short and the work is much.	The taller the **bamboo** the more it bends.

NUTRITION SNAKES AND LADDERS

How to play the game

1. The game can be played by two or more players up to a maximum of 6-8.
2. Each player should have his/her own marker (counter). Different shaped shells or stones, or coloured pieces of paper or plastic, or bottle tops, make good markers. Each player starts with his/her marker on square 1, marked START, which is at the bottom left hand corner of the board.
3. To decide who goes first, each player must shake the die or spin the spinner; the first player to get a six starts the game. He/she then throws again and moves his/her marker forward the number of squares indicated on the die or spinner (ie. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 or 6 squares). Play then continues with the player on the left of the starter throwing the die or spinning the spinner and moving his/her marker, and so on. Players play in the same order until someone reaches square 100, which is the Finish or GOOD HEALTH square.
4. a. If a player lands on a square at the bottom of a Ladder, he/she must read out the message written on the square, move his/her marker up the ladder and finish reading the message at the top of the ladder. The players should discuss the meaning of the message.
    - is the message describing a good nutrition practice or a poor nutrition practice? (Ladders should describe good messages).
    - is the school / family / community practising these good nutrition messages?


NUTRITION SNAKES + LADDERS
100
FINISH
GOOD
HEALTH
START
1
2
3
5
6
7
8
9
10

This Nutrition Education Game has been developed, and a pilot version used, in schools and in community education programmes in a number of countries in the South Pacific. Further information can be obtained from

The Secretary General (Ref. PUB 2/32/1)
South Pacific Commission
P.B. D5
Noumea Cedex
New Caledonia

When a player has gone up a ladder, he/she can continue playing from the square at the top of the ladder. The good nutrition message will have helped him/her move faster up the board to finish with GOOD HEALTH.

b. If a player lands on a square with a snake's head on it, he/she must read out the message written on the square, move his/her marker down the snake and finish reading the message at the bottom of the snake. The players should discuss the meaning of the message.

- is the message describing a good nutrition practice or a poor nutrition practice? (Snakes describe bad messages).
- how can these poor nutrition practices be prevented from occurring in the family/school/communitiy?

When a player has gone down a snake, he/she must continue playing from the square at the bottom of the snake. The poor nutrition message will have slowed the player down so that he/she moves more slowly towards the finish and GOOD HEALTH.

c. There are some squares with good nutrition messages on but no snakes or ladders. When a player lands on these squares, he/she leaves his/her marker in the same square and discusses the message written.

5. The first player to reach the finish square is the winner of GOOD HEALTH. All players must remember to practise the good nutrition messages so that they will stay healthy.

Source: Lowe, N.K. (ed.) *Games and Toys in the Teaching of Science and Technology.* Paris: Unesco, 1988 (Science and Technology Education Document series No. 29), pp. 28-29.

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Chapter 8

Local Study and Action Groups and other Programmes Specially Designed as Learning Strategies

In the studies carried out by the Unesco Institute for Education (UIE), only *Bolivia*, *Brazil*, *India*, *Indonesia*, *Mali* and *Venezuela* have reported on the use of local study and action groups as LS in their PL and CE programmes. It is possible that many more countries have used such action groups as LS, but this has not been documented.

Evidence of the use of action groups as LS was noted in Latin America in the sixties. In the Latin American countries, a number of action groups sprang up, popularly known as *Grass-roots Groups*. These groups were associated in particular with the poorer and more depressed sectors of the population. Their emergence was due to a variety of economic and political factors:

- Many such groups were promoted by the Catholic Church.
- Socio-political processes of the sixties led specific categories of people to come together and join *Reflection*

and Action Groups. The various categories included youth, women, neighbourhood groups, members of co-operatives, and others.

- Through the formation of the groups, a new form of democratic participation was developed in the society. This new function gave the groups a meaningful purpose for which to work together and hence the impetus to keep the groups going.
- Educators and communicators later discovered the potential of these groups and began to use them as vital points for educational contact. They started to employ educational methods designed for small groups, supporting the programmes with the use of small media, notably audiocassettes, slides and films, etc.
- As a result of this, the action groups developed into powerful educational strategies and became widely used in many situations, as may be seen below from the few case studies documented.

The Establishment of Action Groups as Learning Strategies

Local study and action groups take different forms from one country to the next. Even within the same country, action groups can be found in different forms. Groups also differ in size and in the level at which they operate.[1]

We shall now proceed to examine some of the case studies which have been documented in various countries and how they are used as LS in the PL and CE programmes.

The Khanatiwa Programme in Bolivia[2]

The organization and activities of action groups in *Bolivia* are carried out within a programme known as the *Khanatiwa* programme. This particular programme started operations under the name of *Arusquipasiwi*. This means "Let's Talk", which gives some idea of the importance paid to group action and dialogue as a LS.

The Khanatiwa Programme

This programme is supported in Bolivia by an institution known as ERBOL - *Coordinación de Escuelas Radiofónicas de Bolivia*. It is a programme which applies a multi-media approach to the use of action groups as a LS. The activities of the action groups involve printed media and radio.

The programme has the following features:

- It has recourse to a range of multi-media techniques, including radio programmes in the Aymara language.
- It aims particularly at reaching community groups in the high plateau region of Bolivia, which is not easily accessible.
- Each group is provided with a twenty-page booklet every month which serves as a basis for the study programme.
- The content of each of these booklets is decided upon by the groups themselves before it is published and distributed for use by the action groups.
- Each booklet is based on a particular theme, and poses a problem situation in order to establish a dialogue.

- Every action group is also sent questions and provided with sheets on which to return their answers.
- These answers are sent back to the centre which produces the programme to serve as a feedback.

The action group is thus a focal point for learning within the community, constituting a LS based on the use of printed media and radio.

Cultural and Community Action in Brazil [3]

Action groups in *Brazil* have taken a variety of forms. There were two different ways in which groups were established:

- Most of the groups emerged spontaneously in response to certain social factors;
- Others were founded and sustained by organizations such as the MOBRAL Foundation.

The MOBRAL Foundation organized two extensive programmes known as the Diversified Community Action Programme and the Cultural Development Programme.

THE DIVERSIFIED COMMUNITY ACTION PROGRAMME (PRODAC)

PRODAC was responsible for the formation and sustenance of action groups. Two important things are that:

- the formation of the groups took place at different levels;

- the groups went through different phases of development:
    - the mobilization phase,
    - the organization phase,
    - the maintenance of work phase.

These phases are defined below.

Phase I: Mobilization Phase

The main activities of this first phase were:

- All available media were used to stimulate the participation of the entire community for whom the programme was intended.
- A participatory community survey was carried out:
    - to assess existing community problems; and
    - to come up with tentative solutions.

Phase II: Organization Phase

This phase covered the actual formation of the groups, which took place at two levels - municipal and local:

- A community action group was formed at the municipal level.
- Local action groups were formed in specific rural or urban communities within the municipality.
- Each action group was comprised of volunteers, i.e. nobody was coerced to join any of these groups and no one who wished to join could be prevented from joining.
- Each action group drew up and executed its own plans. No plans were imposed on any of the groups.
- Each group aimed at involving as many members of the community as possible in their planned activities.

Phase III. Maintenance of Work Phase

This was the phase in which the group was fairly well organized and established. It was characterized mainly by:

- sustaining community interest in the current programmes; and
- initiating more new, creative programmes and introducing an element of variety so as to avoid monotony and sustain interest.

MOBRAL then used the action groups as LS in its other programmes, notably:

- the Community Health Programmes; and
- the Appropriate Technology Programmes.

In this respect, through the action groups, each of the programmes generated a new programme, or developed into a wider network of activities. To quote the authors of the study carried out for UIE:

"Each MOBRAL programme opened the way for another, that way enabling the individual to develop in different areas. Since MOBRAL viewed education as a process whose ultimate objective was the development of all aspects of human potential, each of its perspectives could serve as a potential area for the educational process."[4]

MOBRAL'S CULTURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (BRAZIL)

This was another type of action group founded in Brazil by MOBRAL in 1973. It was a nationwide programme with two very general goals:

- to serve as a catalyst for cultural revival; and
- to utilize its organizational potential as a LS to raise awareness at a national level.

More specific aims of the programme may be identified as follows:

- to satisfy the need for all those participating in the Foundation's educational programmes to get more involved in the continuous learning process;
- to make sure that the communities to which these groups belonged also became involved in this continuous learning process;
- to help strengthen the knowledge acquired by the individuals participating in the educational programme so that they would not see it as an end in itself but as a stepping stone to further learning. This was done by providing them with such conditions as would enable them to discover new ways of applying the knowledge acquired;
- to incorporate cultural activity into local daily life.

Organization of MOBRAL's Cultural Development Programme

The activities of the Cultural Development Programme originated from two sources:

- As a rule they started with the operational units. These are groups belonging to Foundations which are organized at grass-roots level, known as *Mobraltecas* and *Minimobraltecas* (discussed below in more detail).
- In some cases however, they originated spontaneously, on the initiative of local groups independent of the operational units.

Operating on a Permanent Education basis, they relied on mobile operational units which covered the entire country and encouraged people to participate actively in the programme. In addition:

- They were well publicized in every region they visited so that many people would come and see them.
- They raised popular awareness of the importance of developing permanent cultural activities.
- They introduced the people to the entire MOBRAL programme.
- Mobraltecas were formed in all the areas covered by the mobile operational units. These areas were then known as Mobralteca Regions.
- They set up a coordination network, which was responsible for implementing the activities of the operational units at a regional level.

Operational Units

i. The Mobraltecas

The *Mobraltecas* were the units which gave support at the grass-roots for implementing the activities within the programme. These activities covered all aspects of the development or rediscovery of the people's own culture, which might have suffered in one way or another through the interference of foreign cultures. The main areas covered included:

- folklore and literature;
- music, theatre, drama, films, radio and television;
- artistic and cultural heritage;
- ecology;
- handicrafts, sculpture and modelling;
- games and sports.

ii. The Minimobraltecas

The *Minimobraltecas* arose from the need to disseminate the activities of the Mobraltecas more efficiently at the grass-roots level. When the Mobraltecas programme began to flourish, the organization soon discovered that they could not cope effectively with all the activities at the grass-roots level, hence the introduction of the new groups. The Minimobraltecas were consequently smaller in size than the Mobraltecas.

iii. *MOBRAL Posts*

These *Posts* were cultural centres established to serve as permanent operational units which were responsible for the actual activities within the Cultural Development Programme. Originally established as operational centres, they were later re-designed and given wider functions, and were eventually turned into Permanent Education Agencies, i.e. agencies entrusted with the responsibility for PL and CE in the context of lifelong (permanent) education. MOBRAL posts therefore served as:

- meeting points for the action groups;

- sources of support for the social, educational and cultural development of the community; and
- institutions for promoting, disseminating and preserving local culture.

iv. The Minipost

The *Miniposts* were smaller versions of the MOBRAL Posts, which emerged spontaneously at a local level. They evolved as a result of activities being carried out within the community. To a large extent they depended on their own resources, but also borrowed some of their resource materials from MOBRAL posts.

Development of Study Groups and Responsible Teaching in the People's Republic of China[5]

The *Chinese* Systems of Study Groups and Responsible Teaching pertain mainly to the sparsely-populated areas.

Study Groups

In order to facilitate the learning activities of the illiterates and the neo-literates, various types of study group are formed with the help of a group leader. The type of the study group varies according to conditions. Study is carried out under the leadership of the production team or brigade in accordance with the plans. The major types of study group are the following:

a. *Neighbourhood study group*: This is a popular form of study group. The illiterates and semi-literates of a neighbourhood are organized to study four or five times a week, one or two hours each time.

b. *Family study group*: The illiterates of a family are organized together to study in the evening or after meals. The daily study hours vary according to the local situation.

c. *Women's study group*: The main participants of this type of group are women with a lot of housework. Women who are on good terms with each other and do not want to study with men usually join the women's study group. They usually study after meals.

d. *Sideline study group*: The participants are illiterate and semi-literate stockmen. This kind of group is organized to adapt to production needs. The study hours are flexible.

The group leader takes responsibility for the group activities, reports on progress and helps solve the difficulties of study. The assignment of teachers is made by the production team or brigade. The teachers come to teach at the study hours set by the group. A system embodying a teaching pledge, checking attendance, asking for leave, rewards and extra tuition to make up for absence is set up to guarantee the quality of both teaching and learning. The teaching requirements and payment of the teachers are basically similar to those of regular class-teaching.

Responsible Teaching and Learning

Responsible teaching is one of the ways of eliminating illiteracy and semi-literacy among those who have special difficulties in study, e.g. women whose homes are far apart and who have a lot of housework, fishermen and stockmen. Responsible teaching is also a more flexible and open method of eliminating residual illiteracy. Responsible teaching is carried out under the direction of the production brigade or team. In some cases, the full-time school is in charge of this kind of teaching. The teachers of responsible teaching usually have no specific training concerning the teaching of illiterates or semi-literates. Such teachers are mostly school graduates, activists in combatting illiteracy, teachers of full-time schools and advanced-level students.

The method of responsible teaching is characterized by such mottos as *"relatives teach relatives"*, *"neighbours teach neighhours"*, *"children teach parents"*, *"husband teaches wife"*, *"daughter-in-law teaches her parents-in-law"*, and *"sisters-in-law teach each other"*.

The Nehru Youth Centres (NYK's) in India[6]

The action groups operating in *India* as LS are based in centres known as Nehru Yuvak Kendras (NYK's), i.e. *Nehru Youth Centres*. As the name suggests, these were initiated by the Government with the express purpose of promoting the general development of young people in the areas in which such centres were established.

With the launching of the National Adult Education Programme, the Nehru Youth Centres adopted literacy as their major field of activity.

Mode of Operation of N Y K's

The activities of NYK's generally follow the pattern given below:

Phase I: The first step is to establish a *Chetana Sangh*.

This is an Awareness Building Group, which is organized on the initiative of young people from the village.
Once established, the Awareness Building Group takes on an initial activity which may involve an aspect of community development or community mobilization.
When the group has mobilized other members of the community, any one of a wide variety of activities such as construction work, sports and games may be initiated. The construction work may take the form of digging wells, clearing roads, repairing houses, etc.

Phase II: In this second phase, attention is given to:

- the training of young people for different kinds of work; and
- literacy work, which is regarded as highly important.

Phase III: In the third phase increasing attention is given to Literacy and PL; other forms of development are also carried out and sustained in this phase.

NOTE:

In India, the initial activities of the action groups are not usually based on literacy or post-literacy. The people are first motivated to become involved in improving their own social situation, and literacy activities then follow at a later stage.

Learning Groups in Indonesia[7]

The use of action groups as a LS in *Indonesia* provides another unique example. Indonesia has adopted a broad policy for its national education, which is referred to as the

Education for Development Strategy. Following this strategy, the Government has reorganized the Ministry of Education and Culture by setting up:

a. a coordinated out-of-school education programme under the Department of Community Education (PENMAS); and

b. a vast new Employment-Oriented Learning Programme (EOLP).

THE COORDINATED OUT-OF-SCHOOL PROGRAMME

The PENMAS programmes are organized into two distinct types of activity, namely:

- operational activities; and
- support activities.

Operational Activities

The operational activities include both formal and non-formal learning activities.

The formal learning activities consist of:

- established courses with a fixed curriculum, which are run by PENMAS as well as by some private organizations and individuals.

The nonformal learning programmes consist of:

- learning groups organized in the form of classes;
- self-instruction courses, where the participants work on their own most of the time; and
- apprenticeship programmes, in which the participants learn specific trades.

The actual learning activities include:

- instruction in basic education;
- literacy activities;
- family life education; and
- vocational skills.

Despite these programmes, Indonesia was (and is still) facing a serious problem to which EOLP also addressed itself, namely the urgent needs of poor rural clientele in the crucial areas of:

- generating income, and
- increasing existing income levels.

In 1983 Indonesia had 15 million persons unemployed or grossly underemployed. These were all employable people between the ages of 15 and 45. This made the need to expand opportunities for productive employment and income generation a major national concern.

EMPLOYMENT-ORIENTED LEARNING PROGRAMME (EOLP)

As noted above, mere learning activities were simply not enough to help the rural poor in particular to cope with current economic problems. It was the realization of this that led to the establishment of the *Employment-Oriented Learning Programme (EOLP).*

Objectives of EOLP

The objectives of EOLP are as follows:

- to enable each group of learners to market the skills they already possess, whereby learning activities are focused primarily on increasing the learners' knowledge about organizing and managing small businesses;

- to help increase and improve learners' skills in producing certain goods and providing urgently required services.

Because of the nature of these objectives, the programme has certain interesting features which are worth noting:

- Learning takes place in an actual working situation.
- Learners are expected to expand their businesses with the help of funding (the learner receives a loan from a bank established with the support of the Government for this purpose).
- Participants learn new patterns of marketing products, ordering materials etc. in a real business situation.

For such a programme to be successfully implemented, very careful planning has to go into its organization. The following steps are observed in organizing the learning groups:

Step 1. Identification of the types of occupation to be included in the overall programme.

Step 2. A thorough analysis of these occupations, in terms of skills required and marketing possibilities.

Step 3. Definition of the actual components to be learned.

Several elements must be borne in mind at this stage. Learning here involves:

- acquiring new skills;
- discarding some old and undesirable attitudes; and
- re-learning some skills acquired in the past.

This step, then, involves **learning, unlearning** and **re-learning.**

Note that for such a programme to achieve its objectives, the learners themselves must be actively involved in the development of the curriculum.

Step 4. Selection of the occupations to be included in the EOLP. In implementing the EOLP, the group approach and group learning tend to be used rather than individual study. To support the groups, PENMAS provides a "learning fund" for which learners may be eligible if certain pre-determined conditions are fulfilled.

Step 5. "Rotation of Funds".
At this stage, the learning groups are expected to have acquired and put into practice their new skills. Each group is now expected to pass on the same amount as was made available to it to one or more new groups who are beginning. The money put into the project thus becomes a rotating fund.

Evidence from field reports has shown that:

- each single group put an average of US $ 400 back into the revolving fund; and
- each group increased its capital by an average of 70% to 80%.

Two models of Indonesian learning groups were presented and discussed by the specialists who carried out the case study for UIE. These are reproduced on pp. 294-299.[8]

Case-Study Model I: A Cake-Making Learning Group

This learning group consisted of five women who had been making and selling a locally popular cake on their own. They all possessed the basic skills needed for such an enterprise. After the formation of the group and the award of the learning funds, the group members continued to work on their own, but now they were able to buy the raw materials collectively in bulk quantities and market their products collectively. The amount of funds awarded to this group was small, totalling US $ 45, divided roughly equally among the five members. However, even with this small input of capital, along with guidance in organisation and problem solving, the members were able to increase their incomes and work efficiently.

The key to the initial success of this group was the integrated package of technical guidance (in management and organisation) and capital that the PENMAS field worker was able to provide under the Learning Fund Programme. With the assistance of the PENMAS field worker, weekly group meetings were organised to discuss problems and develop solutions. The most immediate problem identified was the control that a middleman had over their enterprises. Lacking capital, they were forced to buy raw materials from and sell their finished products to a middleman, who could control the prices of both, keeping workers' profits artificially low. The women had been fairly content with this arrangement, although they received a poor return on effort invested, for the middleman handled all of their administrative arrangements and marketing. After analysing the situation, and with the help of additional capital from the Learning Fund, they were able to bypass the middleman by having one of the members take the responsibility for marketing. This solution is not as simple as it might seem, since, although exploitative, the relationship with the middleman was secure. Group members needed much added self-confidence before being able to take such a risk. This process emphasises the importance of group discussion, analysis, and trust in the field worker as a pre-requisite for joint risk-taking in small enterprises.

In addition to problem solving, the group also gained new skills in cake-making. Previously they had made only one kind of cake, but the PENMAS field worker suggested that they experiment with different kinds of material. They found that these new cakes did not sell very well, possibly because their technique was still not refined, but they did not lose money in the experimentation. The important thing was that they were exposed to the concept of experimentation in enterprise, a rare opportunity for many of the poor in Indonesian villages. Again, it was the combination of both funds and guidance that enabled this type of learning to take place.

This group had been formed only six months before the time of the case study from which this information was taken, but even in this short period *attitudinal changes* were evident in the group. The most striking was the learners' attitude toward *savings*. They had previously saved little, perhaps because they had never had extra money to set aside. One condition for Learning Fund Programme assistance was that the group must start to set aside some money to be used as "seed money" for other groups. This requirement got the learners into the habit of saving on a regular basis. They also became used to saving a part of their profits for purchasing more raw materials, a function previously handled by the middleman. Their success led them to adopt a more positive attitude towards savings in general, and group members began to save for household needs and for the possible expansion of their businesses.

The financial administration of the group is left to one person. However, the other members of the group study and examine the books at the regular weekly meetings. They are able to do this because all members of the group have at least basic literacy skills. They take this quite seriously, feeling that they are indeed responsible for the success of the group. One observer suggested that because of the high degree of motivation involved, such a situation would provide an excellent opportunity to teach basic functional literacy and numeracy skills if the group contained members who were illiterate.

Case-Study Model II: A Furniture-Making Learning Group

A small furniture-making business had been started by two persons about two years before it was awarded learning funds and became a learning group. One of the two original members had been trained in carpentry about ten years earlier in a PENMAS vocational skills course. He and another person started the small business, which made tables and chairs out of wood. During the first two years they added three more employees. After receiving the learning funds, three members of the original enterprise left the group to begin their own branch business, while seven unskilled school dropouts were accepted into the group as new learners.

Several changes have taken place in the enterprise since it became a learning group with the addition of learning funds totalling US $ 240. For one thing, the PENMAS field worker who awarded the learning funds to the group has provided guidance in small business administration skills such as basic bookkeeping, keeping inventories, etc. Before the learning group was started, they did not keep any books or records. Profit and loss were a matter of guesswork. Now the business is conducted more systematically. For example, the cost of maintaining tools and equipment is now calculated as a part of production costs, whereas before, such expenses were not accounted for.

The income of each member of the learning group increased significantly after the group had been formed and had received the learning funds. The chart below illustrates the increase in monthly income of four members of this group:

Monthly income before formation of the learning group	Monthly income after formation of the learning group
Rp. 10,000	Rp. 20,000
Rp. 15,000	Rp. 27,000
Rp. 21,000	Rp. 34,000
Rp. 0	Rp. 6,000

US $ 1 = Rp. 625

The method of dividing the tasks up among the group members has changed since the enterprise became a learning group. Previously, the founder of the enterprise, who was a skilled carpenter, simply ordered others to do things. He would have to demonstrate certain things, but it was strictly a boss-labourer relationship. All of the ordering of materials, selling of the goods, etc. was handled by the second founder. However, since becoming a learning group, the learning takes place through more participatory methods, e.g., most of the skill training involves discussions, questions and answers, etc. Furthermore, all members of the group are now involved in purchasing raw materials and in determining the selling price of the products. Those who would normally be considered "labourers" are now considered "learners" who have rights and responsibilities in conducting the business. However, this is not to deny the reality that the original founders of the group are still "first among equals". Nevertheless, the "learners" in the PENMAS groups do have better opportunities to learn to become independent than the "labourers" in ordinary businesses.

Previously the enterprise was limited by capital and by a lack of knowledge of the many items of furniture that could be produced. However, after receiving the learning funds, the group is now able to make a number of different items and of various qualities. Time, manpower, materials, etc. as well as potential market are all calculated in determining the selling price of the products, whereas previously this could not be done. The group is now thinking towards the future in terms of forming a co-operative for obtaining a loan from the bank. The group now has a good chance of succeeding in one of these plans because co-operative assistance and government bank development loans are usually only awarded to groups or enterprises that are well organised and maintain proper administrative procedures.

Discussion of the Case Studies

As these two models have evolved through experience, their inherent strengths and weaknesses have become evident. To reach stated programme objectives and goals, differing input must be made to adjust to the idiosyncracies of each approach.

In order for Model I to be effective, it is important that technical inputs and financial assistance be given in an integrated package. If a gap in time occurs between learning and application, the programme will be less effective. The immediate application of skills and knowledge in a real work situation is the key to success, reflecting an important principle of nonformal education. From experience, PENMAS has also found that it is important for individual members of the group to have already attempted some sort of enterprise on their own before entering the group. This gives a clear indication of the motivation and initiative essential for success in small business operations.

Model II is perhaps a more unusual method for implementing income-generating group programmes. This model is highly efficient since capital investment has already been made, albeit on a small scale. It has been realized that such groups should not begin with more than 3 or 4 employees, since more persons might indicate a business that is already fairly well developed and hence not appropriate for assistance from the Learning Fund Programme. In this model the owners become the resource persons for training new group members in the basic skills of the business. The persons already in the business, however, must learn new and more complex skills as the business is expanded.

PENMAS also works with the group to institute co-operative management and administrative styles and procedures. In some Indonesian village operations, people are keeping books and saving money for investment as a result of small enterprises assisted by the Learning Fund Programme. Both models share a number of problems. One main problem is the *control of capital resources*. In the first model, resources tend to be controlled by a financial monitor (field workers, village head, or group leader) while in the second, control of capital continues to reside completely with the original owner of the enterprise. PENMAS has worked hard to devise ways in which the funds can be awarded to the group as a whole, thus spreading responsibility. Due to this, much group work must focus on the development of co-operative management practices and decision-making. However, decisions concerning profit and business expansion should be made by the group as a whole.

Another problem encountered in both models is the lack of *qualified resource persons* to provide on-going technical assistance to the group. The learners, almost from the very moment they receive learning funds, start to conduct their business differently and begin to acquire new experiences. However, a basic tenet of nonformal education is that such experiences have to be discussed, analysed and processed in order to become meaningful learning. Attitude changes and skill acquisition are greatly improved when capable resource persons are available to act as facilitators. Besides this, resource persons are needed to teach management, administration, marketing, and problem solving skills to all group members.

The Advanced Training of Neo-literates in Mali[9]

Mali has another unique way of using action groups as LS in their PL programme. This programme is called the *Advanced Training of Neo-literates*.

It is intended for newly literate young people and is run in the following way:

- Young people continue their education in relevant areas of science.
- At the same time, they act as agents for the dissemination of appropriate scientific knowledge in their communities.
- They do this by organizing themselves into groups.
- Group action then takes place in phases.

Phase I - Initial Phase

This begins with a village meeting. Everyone in the village is expected to attend. This meeting is also attended by:

- the literacy programme personnel;
- science experts;
- extension workers, etc.

The purpose of this initial phase is:

- to identify the level of knowledge already possessed by the villagers on the issue at hand;

- to engage in a dialogue with the village elders and other village specialists regarding the specific topic, which is chosen in prior consultation with the people.

Phase II - Technical Preparation Phase

The literate young people of the village are given the opportunity to learn from the science experts by:

- engaging in discussions;
- carrying out experiments with appropriate science equipment; and
- acquiring a scientific basis for analysing selected problems faced by the village.

Phase III and beyond

This phase involves:

- the dissemination of scientific knowledge by the young people to the villagers;
- the engagement of the villagers in discussions aimed at resolving conflicts; and
- further training sessions organized for the youth action groups.

As can be clearly seen, the young people engage in discussions with the whole village community before beginning their training sessions. The purpose of this is to assess the real needs of the people:

- They engage in discussions with them again after their training and field activities so that their achievements may be shared.
- This, combined with the consultation with the elders, strengthens their work, as in Mali decision-making is monopolized by the elders.

The interaction between these three groups - the young people, the community and the elders

- reinforces the decisions taken; and
- ensures the participation of the entire village in the implementation of the decisions.

With regard to this well-functioning consultative structure, it should be emphasized that the advanced training of young people rests on the socio-pedagogical assumption that "the traditional youth organizations, 'fertilized' by functional literacy and training, may well become the major channels for the propagation of a range of innovations regarded as absolutely essential to the development and even sometimes to the survival of the villages."[10]

This being an experimental approach, the ultimate aims of the programme are to:

- explain to the trainees why things happen the way they do, guide them in looking for causes and effects, and train them so that they will eventually be in a position to suggest relevant courses of action;
- use group action as a vehicle for the inculcation of a scientific attitude within the community; and

- help solve the major national problems connected with agriculture, livestock breeding, health and technology, by providing concrete scientific solutions to problems affecting the livelihood of the population.

The Programme of Social Organization and Self-Development of the Individual in Venezuela[11]

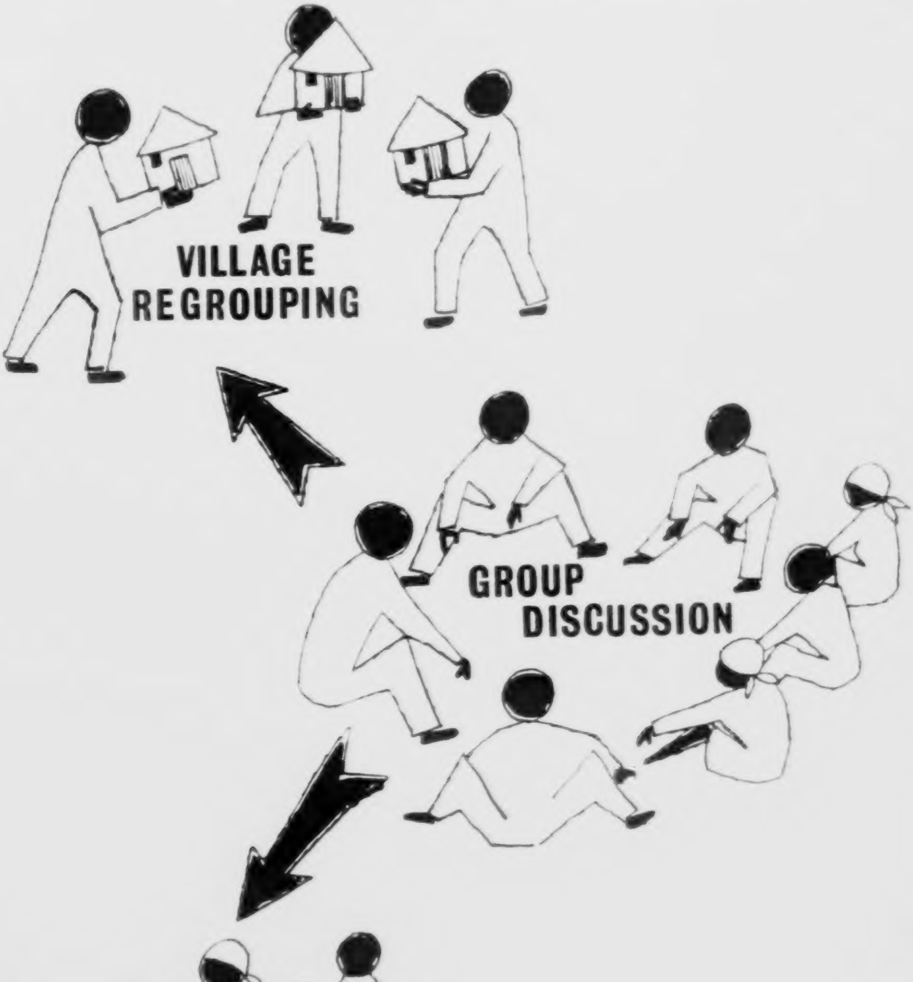
Within its innovative nonformal education project, the Ministry of Education of *Venezuela* is trying out a programme on Social Organization and the Self-Development of the Individual among groups of families in various urban, rural, frontier and indigenous communities. This project arises from the scarcity of social organizations in the communities and the need for individuals to confront the problems of their existence in order to improve their quality of life.

The general objective is to promote better human relationships and individual self-development through the stimulation and organization of social groups which can analyse the socio-cultural reality of their community. The period of time taken for the programme depends on the group.

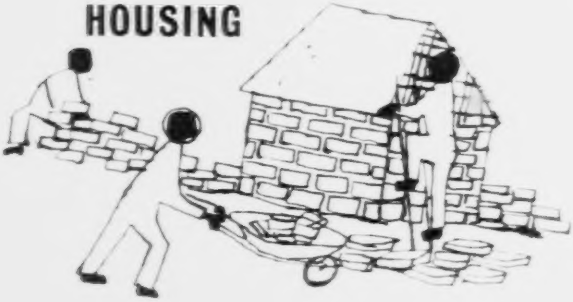
In the Perijá District, a rural area of Zulia State, the participating group was formed of 219 families, although a further 524 families benefited indirectly from it. Since it was a nonformal programme and the intention was to have every person involved, all the family groups of the community were invited by a variety of means, including:

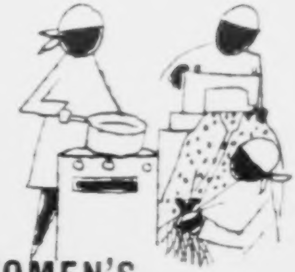
Following pages:
Illustration 14. Government Poster for Neo-Literates: "Action by Community Decisions" (Zambia).

ACTION BY COMMUNITY DECISIONS


VILLAGE REGROUPING
GROUP DISCUSSION
POULTRY AND GARDENING

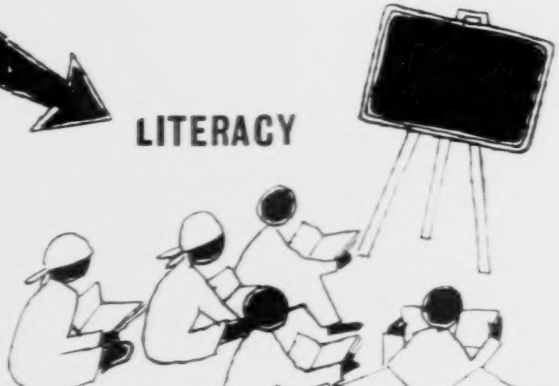
SELF-HELP HOUSING





WOMEN'S CLUBS

LITERACY



- Distribution of posters in the community
- Visits to the family homes
- Meetings with the family groups
- Informal conversations with members of the community
- Broadcast messages.

The programme is closely related to 23 programmes of the Nonformal Education project because it is considered the base for the effective participation of individual and family groups in the other programmes. If the individual is capable of self-development then he is in a better position to achieve the objectives of the succeeding programmes. The programme is also indirectly connected with the formal system because the activities are based on the previous learning that the young people and the adults have acquired through the formal programmes. The programme will also serve as a base from which to continue in the formal system.

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Chapter 9

Out-of-School Programmes, Award-Bearing Schemes, Institutions Parallel to the School System, and Other General and Vocational Nonformal Courses as Learning Strategies

Beside their remedial and stabilizing functions, PL and CE are characterized by the opportunities they afford to the learner for continuing learning and for applying the skills acquired to the solution of personal, group and societal problems. A number of programmes, supported by the corresponding organizational structures, have been designed and implemented with this in mind. According to their objective they may be **development-oriented** or **academically oriented**.

Development-Oriented Programmes

In the range of LS aimed at increasing income generation, there is a strong emphasis on the learning of vocational skills and competencies, and the dissemination through extension services of a wide spectrum of information which neo-literates can put to practical use. Some examples of this are the Diversified Community Action Programme (PRODAC), the Community Health Education Programme (PES), the Community Education for Work Programmes (PETRA) and the Vocational Training Programme, all of which were run by the MOBRAL Foundation in Brazil, the Community Skills Training Centres (CSTC's) in Ethiopia, The Employment-Oriented Learning Group (EOLP) in Indonesia, the Skills Training Projects in Jamaica, the Youth Polytechnics in Kenya, the Small Farm Development Project in Nepal, and the Folk Development Colleges (FDC's) in Tanzania. These post-literacy support services have successfully developed the basic skills of rural peasants and urban dwellers, and provide continuing general education and courses directed particularly at the training of cadres and skilled personnel for further development work.

Academically Oriented Programmes

The academically oriented programmes can be both general and vocational, formal or nonformal. Some of them run parallel to the formal school system, and, where possible, links are established between the two systems. Parallel programmes have a long tradition in Latin America, particularly in Colombia, Cuba and Venezuela. The Spare-Time Schools in China, the Complementary Education system in Vietnam and the One-Class School in Egypt also work with parallel programmes.

USING DEVELOPMENT-ORIENTED, INCOME-GENERATING AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING PROGRAMMES AND INSTITUTIONS AS LS

There are many complex programmes or institutions with broad development aims, which integrate literacy, post-literacy and basic education components. Some of these programmes have been conceived for a range of development purposes and include an educational component, but do not have any link with the formal education system. Other programmes, however, have been designed to run parallel to the formal school system, and provide parallel gradings and appropriate links. Most of these combined programmes have already been dealt with in the previous pages. This is the case, for instance, with the Employment-Oriented Learning Group (EOLP) in Indonesia, and the Diversified Community Action Programme (PRODAC) and the Community Health Programme (PES) in Brazil.

Employment-Oriented Groups in Indonesia

As already mentioned, the EOLP is part of the coordinated out-of-school education programme in *Indonesia* under the auspices of the Department of Community Education (PENMAS) within the Ministry of Education and Culture. In general, the PENMAS programmes as a whole can be divided into operational and support activities. The operational ones include both formal and nonformal learning. Formal learning programmes consist of established courses with a fixed curriculum which are conducted by PENMAS as well as by private individuals and organizations. The nonformal learning programmes cover learning groups as well as self-instruction courses and apprenticeship programmes. These nonformal learning programmes include instruction in basic education and literacy, family life education and vocational skills.

The main objective is to enable each group of learners to "market" the skills they already possess. Therefore, the content of the learning focuses primarily on increasing learners' knowledge about organizing and managing small businesses. An additonal objective is to help increase and sharpen learners' skills in producing certain goods and providing services. Learning takes place in an actual work situation and the learners are expected to expand their businesses with the help of the funding provided, ranging from Rp 50 thousand to Rp 150 thousand (approximately US $ 4,000 to 12,000) depending on the type of business enterprise. This means that they have to learn new patterns of ordering materials, marketing products, etc.

Basic Level Continuing Education of a Vocational Character in Brazil[1]

In *Brazil*, MOBRAL assumed the responsibility for a variety of development-oriented learning activities which were mainly carried out by other executive bodies on a contractual basis. In addition to providing learning opportunities and facilities, these programmes had broader development goals. Most of them made use of a combination of learning strategies. Since the focus of the present study is learning strategies, attempts have been made to identify and select them across the programmes putting special emphasis on vocationally-oriented out-of-school programmes and occasional programmes based on special needs and interests. The strategies described were found either on their own or in combination in the following programmes:

- Diversified Community Action Programme (PRODAC)
- The Community Health Programme (PES)
- The Vocational Training Programme
- The Community Education for Work Programme (PETRA)
- The Technology of Scarcity Programme.

The first two programmes on the list have already been dealt with in the section of the handbook covering LS based on study and action groups.

The Vocational Training Programme

Since its very inception, MOBRAL had always been active in the vocational field through its initiation of local training projects at the municipality level, although this had always been somewhat unsystematic.

The first effort to establish some kind of order took place in 1973, when Central MOBRAL signed agreements with the Intensive Programme for Labour Training (PIPMO).

In 1974, in view of the growing activities within the area of labour-training, Vocational Training Management, or GEPRO, was created, which meant that there was now a nationally coordinated system whose aim it was to make qualitative and quantitative improvements in the activities developed.

Types of Programme

As part of its decision to deal within this issue in a systematic fashion, MOBRAL adopted a classic professional training model which was already being employed by other organizations active in labour training. This attitude resulted in a programme which brought together the following mutually complementary components:

- Vocational Guidance Sub-programme
- Vocational Training Sub-programme
- Labour Placement Sub-programme.

The following features were incorporated: decentralization of execution and centralization of control, utilization of available community resources, search for economy of scale through the use of a single action strategy for the entire country and collaboration with public and private organizations involved in these areas.

Objectives and Methodology

The Vocational Training Programme was intended to meet the Government's need for training manpower to further the social and economic development of Brazil. This was divided into two types of training, namely, *Occupational Families* and *Specific Occupations*.

Training by Occupational Families consisted of imparting a basic technical knowledge of the main and related tasks involved in a group of occupations and so qualifying the trainee to perform a number of tasks, which would subsequently enable him to specialize in a particular area of work or a particular task within an occupation.

The activities provided for in the various kinds of training by Occupational Families (thirteen in all) were eminently practical in nature so as to facilitate retention of what was learned. No extra-curricular activities were included in the programmes.

For training for the primary sector of the economy, between 40 and 80 hours were needed; the timetabling of these hours took account of the workload imposed by the planting and harvesting of crops. Training for occupations in the secondary sector took between 70 and 120 hours.

Training by Specific Occupations, just like training by Occupational Families, was intended to serve government objectives in promoting the social and economic development of Brazil. Differing from the methodology of training by Occupational Families, which entailed semi-skilled training courses, training by Specific Occupations consisted of courses aimed at vocational qualification, which provided for the requirements of a higher degree of specialization imposed by the job market.

Training by Specific Occupations consisted of an organized series of curricula preparing the individual for an occupation (e.g., typing, shorthand, etc.). The activities embodied in the various curricula (27 for the primary sector, five for the secondary sector and ten for the tertiary sector) were both theoretical and practical in nature. Extra-curricular activities were not included. The number of hours varied with the content. It was, however, suggested to the teachers and monitors that the schedule should provide for not less than 60 and not more than 80 hours.

Since MOBRAL's Vocational Training Management did not have its own teachers/monitors, the two training programmes were developed through arrangements with organizations belonging to the formal vocational training system. MOBRAL supplied the funding, the methodology and the didactic materials involved and mobilized the interested clientele in the communities, whereas the other organizations sharing in the agreement provided their own teams of teachers and monitors, who were required to have suitable vocational qualifications. MOBRAL also undertook to provide training in the methodology of the two programmes for these teachers/monitors. These agreements were rendered operational by means of MOBRAL's State Coordination and Municipal Committees, and the state or municipal representatives of the entities participating in the agreements.

The courses took place in the municipalities covered by the agreements between MOBRAL and the participating entities, where there was an interested clientele, and were held in public and private buildings (on estates or smallholdings, in the case of the primary sector, and at workshops made available by local firms in the case of the secondary sector). Training centres belonging to the organizations in the agreement at the respective localities were also sometimes used in the case of secondary-sector activities.

No provision was made for formal (written) examinations in these courses. The certificates were issued to those students who had covered 70% of the stipulated hours of work and had, during the course, given evidence of mastering the techniques introduced. Evaluation was made by the teacher/monitor on the basis of a practical check. No equivalences to other courses were ascribed to these activities.

Control and follow-up were the responsibility of the supervisor at the municipal level during his monthly visits to the courses. A coordinated compilation of the respective data was sent at two-monthly intervals to the offices of the Vocational Training Management.

Experiences Gained

MOBRAL has benefited in the field of vocational training by:

- The development of its own training methodology (according to Occupational Family).
- A widening in scope of the cooperative work carried out with public and private organizations active in this field. As illustrations of these joint undertakings, the following deserve mention:
  1. The Training of Domestic Servants Project undertaken by MOBRAL with the support of the Ministry of Labour and of ARNO (Household Electrical Products Company).
  2. The Training of Agricultural Tractor Drivers, carried out by MOBRAL and Massey-Ferguson (Agricultural Tractors Factory).
  3. Training Agreements for Agricultural Occupations with the (State) Enterprises for Technical Assistance and Rural Extension - EMATER - in association with the (National) EMBRATER.
- The development of local training.
- The development of a broad network of labour placement agencies.

In view of the almost total lack of employment agencies in the country and, above all, in view of the special needs of MOBRAL clients, the Labour Placement Subprogramme was set up to operate by way of simple units, organized and developed as a result of the volunteer efforts of the communities themselves. These units, referred to as "Job Counters", while lacking in the sophistication found in a true agency, had strong foundations, based as they were in the heart of the communities they served, and they remained in permanent contact with the local employment market, as well as with the clientele.

- The development of didactic material for monitors and students as a support for the development of the training courses.

Some Problems and Difficulties

There were, however, a number of factors which restricted the expansion or interfered with the maintenance of these activities. Among them, the following should be mentioned:

- difficulty in recruiting expert personnel experienced in working with this type of clientele;
- lack of sufficient financial resources; and
- difficulty in reconciling a project geared to a labour market whose dimensions were defined by its own needs with service to a clientele numerically greater than the manpower demand.

The Vocational Information Project

The Vocational Information Project was brought into operation through the following media:

- films: *A Mão que Escreve, A Mão que Trabalha* ("The Hand that Writes", "The Hand that Works");
- audiovisual media: *Todo Mundo Trabalha* ("Everybody Works");
- occupational leaflets - a total of one hundred different texts giving information on the occupations of greatest interest to the MOBRAL public.

The purpose of this project was to systematically provide the MOBRAL public with more and better information on job opportunities which would match their skills and interests.

A number of activities were initiated to promote these resources, including:

- the distribution of leaflets through the Job Counters;
- the distribution of leaflets to candidates for vocational training courses;
- the distribution of leaflets at the commencement of classes, making them available at points of enrolment and also at the courses themselves;
- the distribution of leaflets at Functional Literacy and Integrated Education Classes, so as to reinforce the learning of reading and writing by providing links with the various vocations;
- individual and/or collective reading of the informative content of these leaflets at the Cultural Posts;
- talk and discussions on vocational information and its role in the life of the individual and the community, besides other aspects connected with opportunities for training and better employment;
- visits to companies;
- the showing of films and audiovisuals, followed, whenever possible, by discussion;
- informing the community of the major activities involved in the Vocational Information Project.

The information provided by the Vocational Information Project included data on:

- those occupations most suitable to persons with the level of education of the MOBRAL clientele;
- the nature and requirements of each job, e.g. description of the tasks involved, requirements of schooling, age, physical strength, agility, keenness of sight and hearing, etc.;
- local training opportunities;
- the supply and demand for jobs, average wage levels, etc.

An effort was also made to permit the individual to learn about other work activities, helping him to adapt his skills and interests to the jobs available.

In the selection of monitors for the study groups, the organization made use of the MOBRAL supervisors working at municipal level, the Job Counter attendants (if such facilities were in operation at the particular place), the course monitors in the relevant area of vocational activity, and community professionals interested in imparting vocational information. The task of coordinating these activities fell to the MOBRAL state and municipal representatives. The Vocational Training Management at the Central MOBRAL level dealt only with follow-up activities.

The Community Education for Work Programme (PETRA)

The Community Education for Work Programme, referred to as PETRA, belonged to MOBRAL's Supplementary Education Programme. This programme also included the activities carried out jointly with other vocational training organizations.

In the area of vocational training, the Community Education for Work Programme (PETRA), launched in 1978, was intended to contribute to community development by improving and developing the occupations of its members. This was done by selecting monitors skilled in various vocational activities who then conveyed their knowledge to other members of the community through short courses.

Objectives

The general objectives of PETRA were to provide opportunities for workers to improve their knowledge and experience so as to be able to carry on activities at home, at work and in the community, and to permit the self-development of community members through course monitoring.

The specific goals were to put those enrolled in the programme in a position to reduce their expenditures, increase their family income, perform better vocational and community activities and acquire new knowledge.

Features of the Courses

In selecting the courses, consideration was given to the interests of the community and the availability of monitors. The minimum length of the courses was fixed at 40 hours, spread over a maximum of 45 days, and it was suggested that a total of ten hours a week should not be exceeded, with a maximum of two hours of classes per day. The classes should contain at least ten students each at the commencement of the courses, and the lessons should be predominantly practical in nature.

The short PETRA courses were intended to develop skills in the members of the communities they served. Their activities were controlled by means of two blank forms which had to be filled in, one giving the monitor's name and details of the courses to be held, and one for recording attendance. The location of the courses was left to the judgement of the monitor (depending on the kind of course, it could be the monitor's own home or that of one of the trainees, or a classroom, workshop or any other facility made available by the community). Participants received a certificate of attendance at the end of each course.

The monitor was the main person responsible for organizing the courses. It was up to him to:

- find out whether or not the course for which he was qualified aroused interest on the part of the clientele;
- help promote the course;
- organize the classes;
- decide on the structure of the course;
- find a location for the classes;
- determine the period over which the course should be held, etc.,

all of this in conjunction with MOBRAL's representative unit at the municipal level. To be a monitor, a person was expected to possess knowledge and experience in relation to the course he proposed to give, be capable of communicating with others and have available time and facilities.

The teaching materials were supplied by Central MOBRAL. The learner materials were obtained from the community, local entities, or were even provided by the trainee himself. MOBRAL's support also took the form of a small financial bonus and the provision of limited financial resources for the purchase of materials to be utilized in the course.

This programme was based on the transmission of simple work skills, taking into consideration the real interests and needs of the community. In order to pass, the student had to do the following:

- indentify materials/equipment utilized;
- correctly handle the materials/equipment utilized;
- describe tasks/operations carried out and execute the tasks/operations which had been taught.

New Paths of Action

The main change which took place after the establishment of PETRA was in the area of training. As a result of it, the labour market ceased to exist as a basic reference for action, and the monitor, previously someone necessarily having aquired formal schooling, was thereafter a person schooled in the day-to-day business of living.

The Job Counters, for example, widened their range of services; in additon to the traditional referral to the MOBRAL client to a job, referral now also worked in the other direction; the Counter would refer to the community those who rendered services (shoemakers, plumbers, and others), as well as informing the community of sales outlets for agricultural products produced by small rural farmers, thereby bringing the consumer closer to the source of production. As the services rendered increased in number, the Job Counters were renamed Job and Services Counters.

As an alternative line of action, this change was followed by an attempt to market the products manufactured by the students in the course of their studies. This attempt, referred to as PETRA Markets, failed to produce significant results. The Markets were held in rooms made available by the community and received support from MOBRAL and the municipal governments. Eventually, however, this initiative was abandoned.

As a result of this, MOBRAL began searching for new alternatives capable of fulfilling the needs of its clientele. This effort centered around marketing and production, which, together with the training, became MOBRAL's strongest concern.

One of the ways in which this was achieved was by creating production groups, which, while bringing together production, marketing and professional training activities, acquired new characteristics typical of a producers' association.

In 1982-1983 this project was developed experimentally under the title "Community Workshops Project for Training in the Production of Goods and Services". In the expansion phase it became known as "Production Groups", reflecting a move away from an impressive physical infrastructure of support for organized production groups, in favour of simple action.

The project in Brazil was developed experimentally in the states of Rio de Janeiro (South), Minas Gerais (North), Alagoas, Sergipe, Goiás and Rio Grande do Sul.

The following courses were developed: sewing and tailoring, the preparation of confectionery, electricity, carpentry for fences and roofs, domestic production of dairy products, the cultivation of vegetables and fruit, basic masonry, basic carpentry, iron soldering, pig-raising, cattle-raising, rural maintenance mechanics, and others.

These production groups were made up of persons who:

- had acquired the relevant technical knowledge;
- concentrated on the production of specific, easily commercialized articles;
- became members of an association for production and marketing purposes;
- received support from MOBRAL through skills training, instructions concerning associations, bank credit, accounting, marketing, etc., and occasionally production materials. Because of this, MOBRAL worked in collaboration with CEBRAE (Brazilian Support Centre for Small and Medium-Sized Business Enterprises).

The Technology of Scarcity Programme

The main purpose of the Technology of Scarcity Programme was to disseminate a knowledge of popular technology featuring low-cost, easily obtainable local resources. This technology was mostly based on folk wisdom and traditional knowledge. It involved, for example, ways of preserving foodstuffs and the preparation of household medicines and remedies. These techniques were dealt with scientifically by the Technology of Scarcity management or by scientific institutions and aimed at explaining why and how they function. Depending on the course, they were occasionally even associated with procedures of sophisticated technology, as in the case of using solar energy at a primary level.

For implementation, follow-up, technical assistance, evaluation and feedback of how the programme operated in the field, the Technology of Scarcity management had representatives in most of the states, as well as in the Overall Supervision Sub-system and other MOBRAL agencies.

The contents of the programme were aimed at meeting the needs and aspirations of the communities, which were surveyed together with the members of the communities themselves, these being the people who know local conditions and resources best. It extended its activities to cover all possible areas, including nutrition, health, housing, agriculture, leisure, the procurement and application of energy, livestock breeding, and clothing, bearing in mind at all times the probable use of unskilled labour and the shortage of raw materials. The contents of the programme were accordingly based on utilitarian craftmanship - the production of working tools and other utensils for day-to-day use - and the utilization of waste products. These programmes were adapted to suit local conditions in various regions throughout Brazil.

The Technology of Scarcity Programme, covering every state in Brazil, was implemented 1) by groups that had already been developed by other MOBRAL programmes and 2) by groups that had been formed for the purpose of seeking specific solutions to their problems through the Technology of Scarcity Programme. These groups were initiated in advance by agents of MOBRAL in each community.

The techniques adopted by the programme were disseminated through pamphlets in the *Cada Cabeça é um Mundo...* ("Everyone is different"...) collection, which constituted the frame of reference for the programme. These pamphlets were also employed to the full in other MOBRAL programmes, serving students who had already learned to read and write, as in the case of the Integrated Education Programme and the Self-Teaching Programme. They were also used in the formal educational system, and approximately 3,000 sets of the *Cada Cabeça é um Mundo...* series were even distributed to elementary and secondary schools.

The system of coordination of the Technology of Scarcity Programme involved three different levels:

- At the national level, the Technology of Scarcity management was responsible for preparing content and subject matter, for planning and evaluating activities within the programme, for training those responsible for the programme at a state and municipal level, and for MOBRAL's Overall Supervision Sub-system. This was effected directly through technical assistance, and indirectly by means of orientation documents.
- At the state level, those responsible planned and adapted activities within the framework of the programme, and helped train those involved in developing the programme in the municipalities. They also reported to those at national level on the results obtained and the difficulties encountered.
- At the municipal level, the persons responsible were entrusted with the task of both developing and following up the programme. This follow-up process provided information which was then used not only for evaluating activities under the programme, but also for preparing new subject matter. The information was relayed to the national level by means of three types of questionnaire, which were filled in by members of the localities concerned, and through reports sent in by MOBRAL representatives in the municipalities, who usually belonged either to the Overall Supervision Sub-system or to other MOBRAL programmes.

The National Apprenticeship Service (SENA) in Colombia[2]

An important programme in *Colombia* which deserves special attention is SENA (the National Apprenticeship Service). SENA provides promotional and vocational training; it is a decentralized institute which receives a monthly contribution of 2 per cent of the salaries of private employees, those employed in public agencies, industrial and commercial government enterprises, etc. It also receives 0.5 per cent of the salaries of government employees. This sum is used for special vocational training programmes. The types of programme are:

> Electricity, electronics, building, tourism and hotel-related occupations, hospital services, graphic arts, industrial techniques, watchmaking, shoemaking, furniture, textiles, forest resources, technical assistance, small and medium production industry, aviation mechanics, mining, handicrafts, electro-mechanics and networks, refinery and petrochemicals.

Classrooms, laboratories, libraries and a services infrastructure are provided for the students. Varied strategies and methods are employed according to the type of programme. Mobile programmes (urban and rural) and consultancy services are also provided for enterprises.

In addition, a Distance Training Programme (SENA-FAD) has been set up and is being widely promoted.

Table 5 summarizes SENA's training activities.

Table 5. *SENA Training Modalities for Manpower Qualification*

	Modality	Target Group	Objective	Duration
QUALIFICATION	Initiation	Employed or unemployed	To train new personnel (semi-qualified occupations)	Varies from 80 to 220 hours
	Apprenticeship	Secondary school graduates, employed or unemployed	To train new personnel (Qualified occupations)	Varies from 2 to 3 years (full-time)
IMPROVEMENT	Promotion	Employed Adults	To train highly qualified personnel for intermediate levels	varies from 2 to 2 1/2 years depending on the speciality
	Complementation	Employed adults	To overcome deficiencies in theory or prqctice in order to reach a qualified level	Varies depending on the need of the person
	Specialization		To train highly qualified personnel	Short and medium term courses

Skills Training Programmes in PL in Ethiopia[3]

Linking education with commercial production has been one of the major elements of the educational reform which took place in *Ethiopia* in 1979. The programme launched was called the Basic Development Education Programme (BDEP) in which there is a strong emphasis on animation, general education and training in specific skills. In a paper prepared on this project by the Ethiopian Ministry of Education in January 1988, the components of the BDEP are presented as follows:

The *animation* element of the programme is an attempt to make the people of the community aware of their capacity to develop their own community using mainly their own manpower and resources. The *general education* element is provided for all members of the community (irrespective of sex or age), covering mainly the essentials. These include:

- developing positive attitudes toward development;
- developing a scientific outlook and an elementary understanding of the processes of nature;
- teaching and upgrading the skills of literacy and numeracy;
- equipping students with functional knowledge and skills for:
  - raising a family,
  - running a household,
  - earning a living, and
  - civic participation.

Training in specific skills is provided to selected people from the community so that they can manage specific community services, e.g. water supplies, clinics, day-care centres, etc.

Besides the BDEP and its centres at the field level, two major institutions have been set up in order to implement this reform: the Burayu Basic Technology (BTC) and the Community Skills Training Centre.

Community Skills Training Centres (CSTC)

In order to gain the full participation of the people in the development of their country, they have to be equipped with deeper and broader skills than simply reading, writing and computation. The application of these three in order to acquire other practical skills had already become an important issue before the literacy campaign started. Community Skills Training Centres (CSTC's) were created to meet part of this need.

Since the main objective of the CSTC's is to raise the level of indigenous skills and introduce new skills for the development of the area, the training programme is not intended for hired employment but rather for self-employment and community work. The trainees are regarded as multiplying agents as they are expected to train other members of their communities later on.

To this end, the trainees, upon completion of their training programmes, should return to their respective Peasant Associations (PA's) and render services to fellow members in the community by practising their newly-acquired skills and training others.

The CSTC's are also supposed to function as "Community Centres" in the sense that they should, ideally, be focal points in rural community life. Provision should thus be made for meetings, social and cultural activities, sports tournaments, agricultural field days, etc.

A CSTC, on average, has a yearly capacity for training 120 persons. One CSTC, on average, serves around 40 PA's. According to the evaluations carried out, however, most CSTC's are not used to the full for various reasons. In 1984, figures for utilization stood at around 40 per cent, whilst by 1987 they had risen to aproximately 50 per cent.

The overall responsibility for CSTC's lies with the Adult Education Department of the Ministry of Education. Administration at the level of the town where a CSTC is located is mainly carried out by the town (Wereda). The CSTC coordinator is employed by the Ministry of Education. In some regions, the Regional Education Office has employed assistant coordinators. The coordinators are elementary school teachers. The Ministry pays the salaries for three instructors, usually local artisans or other skilled people from the PA's. These people are temporarily employed on a contractual basis.

Curriculum and Course Structure

The general outline of the content of the CSTC programme has been developed by the Ministry of Education at national level in collaboration with other development ministries and mass organizations. The broad outline of the curriculum includes:

- agricultural education such as soil conservation, improving farm tools and farming methods, crop raising and animal breeding, etc.
- skills training in areas such as pottery, metalwork, woodwork, weaving, basketry, leatherwork, masonry, etc.

- health education, covering sanitation, prevention of infections and contagious diseases, benefits of a balanced diet, dangers of unscientific health beliefs and practices, etc.
- cottage industry skills
- cooperative education
- family life education
- political education.

There are three different types of training programme conducted at the centres:

> *Skills Training courses*, the normal duration of which is three to four months. Specific craft and trade skills are taught as core subjects in the courses, normally for eight hours a day. Weaving, metalwork, carpet-making, leatherwork and woodwork, knitting and pottery are the most common subjects.
> In addition to the core subjects, supplementary subjects such as family life, health, gardening, agriculture, soil conservation, irrigation, aforestation, cooperative education, etc. are taught at the post-literacy level, usually for one to two hours a day.
> Approximately 40 per cent of the capacity of the centres is used for conducting skills training courses.
>
> *Short courses and seminars* of two to three weeks duration. These programmes are rural development-oriented with emphasis on agriculture, health, family life and administrative knowledge and skills. They are usually conducted in collaboration with Wereda Development Agents. Approximately 10

per cent of the capacity of the centres is used for this type of programme.

Some centres have started *development work*, which is a structured combination of practical farmwork and on-the-spot instruction and demonstration. The aim is to expose PA members to improved farm work, improved techniques in ploughing, terracing, gardening, horticulture, irrigation, etc.

PL Level Skills Training in Jamaica

Formerly the skills taught in the classes were somewhat unsystematic, and were used primarily to motivate students into attending classes and at the same time to provide some measure of income from the sale of articles made.

The new thrust of the *JAMAL* Programme for occupational skills training is an essential aspect of the re-directed educational programme for the age group 15 to 19+.

The main objectives of the new skills training programme are to provide graduates with occupational skills which will generate much-needed income, and to provide communities with various necessary services for expansion and development, thus retaining persons in their own area and reducing the population drift to main towns.

In an effort to achieve these objectives, the JAMAL skills training programme had been formalized thus:

- Skills training is now an integral part of the JAMAL Programme.
- All skills training projects are being funded through the JAMAL Foundation.

- Existing skills training institutions are being explored with a view to utilizing their facilities and hence avoiding setting up duplicate programmes.
- At the outset, skills training programmes operated by the Foundation will be confined to full and part-time adult education centres.
- Each programme must satisfy the specific objectives of the Foundation, which is to provide each student aged 15 to 19 + with a marketable skill.
- The curriculum guide prepared for each project is designed to provide basic training in the relevant area.
- A system of certification is designed for all JAMAL skills training graduates.

So far, 23 projects have been established in seven regions. Preparatory work is now being carried out in other regions with a view to setting up more such centres. The skills now being taught in the existing projects are:

- woodwork
- machine-shop skills
- lithography
- needlecraft
- pattern drafting and designing
- dressmaking
- home management
- housekeeping for villas and apartments
- silk-screen printing
- basketry
- straw work
- agriculture
- candy-making

One community college and two secondary institutions are offering training in occupational skills for students in JAMAL classes.

The JAMAL student who has aquired a skill through training under the new system will be better equipped to join the labour force, to become self-employed, to seek further training in the particular skill he has chosen, and, generally, to hold his own in a competitive world.

On pages 341-344 are two examples of the development of occupational skills projects which grew out of a real need.[4]

Skills Project I - Sewing for babies can be fun

The attendance at one adult education centre suffered continued fluctuation. The teaching of academic subjects alone was not enough to maintain steady and regular attendance. The decision was taken to introduce skills training in order to integrate practical skills with academic study.

A questionnaire dealing with proposed projects was done by students in classes and the most popular selection - sewing for babies - was introduced to a class of fifteen students. This project was included because of the number of mothers attending literacy classes, the need for this skill, the small amount of materials required for making a single item, and the fact that these could be made by hand where it was impossible to buy expensive machines. Most of the students had absolutely no idea about sewing for babies, and very few had mastered the most basic stitches.

A contribution of $ 100 and a sewing machine was given to the project by the JAMAL Foundation, while other organizations donated irons, scissors, tape measures and pins. Difficulty was experienced initially in providing material for beginners. This was overcome through the collection of scraps from sewing establishments to be used in the early learning stages. As the students progressed, some material was bought and the programme was off the ground.

Time was spent not only in developing the practical skills but also in teaching the mathematics needed for measurements, purchasing materials, and selling the products, and the language of the subject necessary for records and descriptions. Students became more interested in these academic subjects, having seen their relevance to everyday living. In a relatively short period the students were able to measure, cut, assemble and sew small garments by hand - as well as by machine - and complete them with decorative stitches at a standard above average. They were also able to respond to small orders, the selling price of which was a little below regular market prices.

The proceeds from sales were used to maintain the project. Students participated in displays where a number of articles were exhibited; this resulted in the placement of orders and highlighted the need for establishing other projects in centres. Some students have now been engaged in sewing children's clothes for their families as well as for sale, thus increasing productivity and improving their economic status.

As a result of the success achieved, this project has been formalized, receiving full sponsorship by the Foundation. The students are now geared towards improving standards and skills and preparing for self-employment or employment in factories or other establishments.

Skills Project II - JAMAL candies

Portland is one of the parishes which has many beauty spots; its capital town, Port Antonio, is a tourist resort area.

Many people make their living by selling wares to tourists, e.g., craft, straw, carving. The need was always to supplement these with new and attractive creations to maintain sales, thus enhancing production and employment. After planning and experimenting, it was found that candy-making would be a viable project.

The Jamaica Tourist Board has given JAMAL students the opportunity to participate in its "Meet the People" parties by giving demonstrations on the preparation of Jamaican foods and selling the products. The venue is the Folly Adult Education Centre, and the programme is designed to provide training and upgrading in candy-making, thus developing a marketable skill. It further sets out to:

- emphasize the "earn-while-you-learn" approach, thus integrating academic with practical work;
- provide opportunity for participation in cooperative ventures within the cottage industry;
- provide training in simple accounting and business management skills;
- train participants in proper packaging of finished goods in keeping with the requirements of the Bureau of Standards;

- give training in producer-consumer relations and general work ethics.

The duration of the course is one term of twelve weeks, and the maximum number of participants is twelve. The age group is 15 - 20 year-olds, starting from the Level 2 JAMAL standard of literacy.

Tuition is free; the materials in the initial stage were provided through donations from people who were interested in the project. The candy is prepared in "blocks" and "bumps" and is packaged in plastic bags. Special orders, however, are attractively packaged in mini baskets made by the students themselves and labelled "JAMAL candies" and supplied to fairs, tea parties, stores and shops both within and outside the parish.

The project has been developing satisfactorily and sales have been encouraging. A profit of $ 2,500 was made in five months. Recently a stove was purchased at a cost of $ 3,190. Orders are being filled. Assistance has been given by USAID for the expansion of the project.

A part of the profit has been utilized in giving assistance to other students at the centre by:

- subsidizing educational tours;
- providing some students with the basic necessities;
- ensuring consistency in class attendance.

As a result of the success of this project, other centres have visited and observed methods of production with a view to embarking on similar projects.

The Youth Development Programme in Kenya[5]

Youth Polytechnics (previously village polytechnics) have been established all over *Kenya* by local communities through self-help projects, in some cases with the assistance of religious and other voluntary organizations. Many of the existing 320 polytechnics are sponsored by the government and deal mainly with artisan courses which are taught from a common centrally prepared curriculum.

The Youth Polytechnics cater mainly for primary school leavers and equip them with basic skills which will enable them to become self-reliant. The graduates may be eligible to join craft training programmes, after which they may advance to higher courses. The centres at which such programmes take place teach various trades, including carpentry, masonry, plumbing, motor mechanics, electrical engineering, electronics, pottery, leatherwork, tailoring, accounting, dressmaking, etc. according to the demand and hence the marketability of such skills.

To facilitate understanding, some of the formal school subjects such as English and mathematics are also taught. Apart from ensuring a means of livelihood for thousands of school-leavers, these centres help to alleviate unemployment and to supply the country with urgently needed basic-level technicians and craftsmen.

The Small Farmers Development Project (SFDP) in Nepal[6]

This project provides farmers in *Nepal* with various types of financial, income-generating, agricultural and social and community services assistance in a package form. Loans are provided on the basis of group liability. Farmers are given training in sanitation and environmental awareness and are involved in various projets for improving social services and community life. The main educational activities offered include functional literacy and learning about afforestation, drinking water, population education, food and nutrition, road construction and maintenance, etc. In additon, the farmers are given training in group dynamics, improved agricultural and livestock production techniques, public health, family planning, cottage and rural industries, and bee-keeping. From 1975 to 1984, a total of 63,750 small farmers were involved in some kind of social and community development training and education and 24,326 were provided with some kind of skill training in at least a few areas of personal, social and economic development.

The Folk Development Colleges (FDC's) in Tanzania[7]

These *Tanzanian* colleges model themselves on the Danish Folk High Schools. The features found in these schools, namely the flexibility of the work programmes, the focus on the development of the personality, on responsibility and on a spirit of cooperation, the absence of a formal grading scheme, and finally, the close working relationship between teachers and learners, were found to be very helpful in creating institutions which offer a training ground for organizers and teachers in adult education.

Folk Development Colleges (FDC's) in Tanzania are rural training institutions which provide adult learning for effective development. They are used to provide adults with knowledge and skills. The FDC project was launched in Tanzania in 1975 as a multi-purpose adult education project aimed at maximizing educational impact in every district in order to raise the general level of economic activity while at the same time providing a much more coordinated and integrated approach to the training requirements of the villages.

Adults are enrolled in FDC's after the college board, in collaboration with the district authorities, has critically examined the problems and training needs of the villages. Normally this is done by going through the district development plans and visiting villages in order to assess the situation. Before a training programme can be prepared, approved, and publicized by the colleges concerned and the college board, it has to be made certain that there is adequate teaching material and staff, and that the participants have been nominated/selected by their village councils. An adult will then be enrolled in the Folk Development College if he/she is a member of a village, government, ministry, or quasi-governmental organization and is willing and committed to work in the village after the training. He/she should be strongly committed to education for the benefit of his/her village, should be an adult (normally 18 years and above), should be literate or a learner in a literacy class, and should be cooperative and resourceful. Due to the newness of the project, lack of manpower and shortage of funds, it has not yet been possible to identify all the problems and needs of the villages.

The average FDC in Tanzania has a capacity of 60 places. The biggest can take 250 adult learners while the smallest can take 40.

Objectives

The aims and objectives of the Folk Development Colleges Project are:

- To develop the whole personality, and in particular, the ability to think and to participate in the economic, cultural, political and social life of the community. The FDC's are intended to produce people who are able to identify their problems and act on them in an intelligent way.
- To help all the people to understand the country's policy of socialism and self-reliance, and to encourage them to contribute positively to the political life of their communities.
- To improve the knowledge and skills of adults in such fields as agriculture, handicrafts, domestic science, health and water supply. This is based on the fact that Tanzanians must keep increasing and updating their knowledge so that new techniques can be applied to increase production.
- To develop democratic and cooperative skills among the people, particularly in Ujamaa villages.
- To help promote participation and self-reliance within the community through training in leadership skills.
- To increase the people's knowledge of Tanzanian culture and to promote an active involvement in cultural activities.
- To achieve a wider understanding of the world and increase the ability to participate in international affairs.

In view of the above aims and objectives it can be said that the FDC's have a political, economic, social, and cultural function.

Curricular and Extra-Curricular Activities

The FDC programmes are organized on the basis of carefully selected courses aimed at providing knowledge and skills to the participants. The courses offered by the FDC's cover:

- political education
- applied sciences
- agriculture
- home economics
- accountancy
- rural development
- national culture.

As regards extra-curricular activities, all staff members of the FDC's are expected to participate in various activities such as teaching literacy classes in nearby villages and making follow-up trips to the villages to see what the FDC graduates are doing. Due to lack of funds and transport, these follow-up activities have not been very successful.

Course Duration

The length of the courses depends on the subjects to be taught and the urgency of the trainees' needs. There are long and short courses. The short courses can take from a few weeks to six months and are designed for teaching a single subject such as poultry-keeping, horticulture or pig-raising.

The long courses last from six months to two years. Teaching is based mainly on the inclusion and elaboration of almost all the techniques and principles described earlier. General subjects such as political education, cultural activities, rural development and accountancy are also taught.

Administration and Staffing

FDC's are directly administered by the Ministry of National Education. They come under the Directorate of Adult Education. The coordinating body which is directly responsible for them is the FDC Secretariat, which is answerable to the Director of Adult Education.

The FDC Secretariat, the Teacher Training College at Kibaha, the FDC's, and the college advisory boards cooperate in identifying training needs and in creating the curriculum.

The training given in FDC's has a practical bias and encourages creativity and resourcefulness in the teachers. For the teacher to perform his duties well, he must:

- investigate local problems and recommend possible solutions or alternatives;
- evaluate the progress and problems of his subject;
- arrange educational visits for the students;
- evaluate students' progress;
- develop a curriculum for his own subject;
- prepare work schedules according to the syllabus and the abilities of the participants.

About 48 per cent of the FDC agricultural teachers are professionals who have had one year of training in Colleges of National Education after working as Assistant Field Officers in the Ministry of Agriculture. Working experience is about 8 - 10 years' fieldwork and 2 - 3 years in FDC's.

Main Features and Linkage with Other PL Programmes

One very prominent feature of the Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania is the total absence of examinations, certificates or any other kind of grading. The courses are flexible and focus on the development of the adult personality and on a spirit of cooperation.

FDC's are used as post-literacy institutions for neo-literates who have graduated from literacy classes. Rural libraries have been based in FDC's wherever possible. Rural newspapers are distributed to FDC's to be read by the adults who enrol for courses. FDC's conduct radio discussion groups using the radio programmes broadcast for adults by the Directorate of Adult Education. Courses for literacy teachers and local and divisional adult coordinators are also conducted in the FDC's.

Occupational Training in Thailand[8]

In the early development plans of *Thailand*, there was an emphasis on the development of a workforce, especially middle-level workers who were needed for the labour markets. Because of this emphasis, free and independent vocational pursuits were neglected. Another problem was that the middle-level workforce requires employees with at least secondary education certificates, thus leaving untouched the problem of rural people with low educational attainment. It is no surprise that a large section of the rural population - about 20 per cent - is still living below the poverty line. Not only were educational requirements too high, but the various training courses were often too long and their content too specific.

Courses and Related Aspects

With this in mind, the Non-formal Education Movement (NFE) has tried to organize vocational programmes of varied length and wider scope - especially in those areas related to major occupations and people's daily lives. Vocational courses range in length from 50 to 300 hours in four areas, namely industry, home economics, business and agriculture. Within these areas, however, the emphasis is on teaching content and practices required by the rural population. The engine repair course, for example, deals with small engines of the type found in water pumps, motorcycles, etc. Fees are minimal and educational requirements are low, requiring only basic reading, writing, and numeracy skills (for simple calculations, note-taking and communication).

In an attempt to meet the diverse needs of the rural people, the NFE has organized short training courses called the "Interest Group Programme". Villages, with the aid of a district education officer and the Provincial NFE Centre, identify the area of interest in which they want to study, recruit at least 15 learners, and find a meeting place and an instructor (if possible). Once approved, the NFE will provide the instructor's fees. No courses may exceed 30 hours in length. The purpose of the short course is both self-improvement and self-employment.

Evaluation

Evaluation of the vocational programmes conducted by the NFE has revealed that the major problems are drop-outs and the shortage of educational materials. Some NFE officials, however, have suggested that rather than considering drop-outs as a problem, dropping out should be considered as an indication that the needs of learners had already been met: students had got what they wanted from the classes and had then left. If this is true, then the breakdown of various long courses into smaller independent units, as has already been done in the NFE, may prove to be a move in the right direction. These non-formal vocational courses have also been found to enable learners to improve their living standards.

The National Learning Programme (NLP) in Venezuela[9]

The National Learning Programme (NLP) is a programme run by the *Venezuelan* National Institute of Educational Cooperation (INCE), created in 1964 in accordance with article 13 of the INCE law, which states: "When the Institute decides on the training of minors in factories, workshops or organized works, the enterprises have to employ an instructor to teach, or pay for the teaching of, an occupation to a number of minors selected for this purpose, up to a limit of 5 per cent of the total number of workers".

Type of Programme

The National Learning Programme is a regular programme for INCE and an occasional or regular programme for the enterprise, depending on its particular needs. Every programme is composed of two parts: Basic Training in the INCE Centres and Practical Training in the factories or industries.

Learners

The participants are called "apprentices", who, according to article 13 of the INCE law, are "workers less than 18 and more than 14 years old, undergoing systematic professional training in the occupation in which they are working, without having graduated earlier from a training course in that occupation".

In the selection of apprentices INCE has established two categories: (a) workers nominated by the enterprises, (b) persons selected by INCE and sent to the enterprises. Once they are accepted as workers, they can enter the programme. The National Administrative Council of INCE decides on the number of apprentices that the enterprises have to engage on the basis of the number of their employees, geographical location and economic activity. Today only the industrial, commercial, service and state enterprises are obliged by law to accept a quota of apprentices.

When the selection is completed, the enterprises organize work for the apprentices according to the training programme approved by INCE, so that the apprentice has the opportunity to practise the different tasks involved in the occupation.

The length of the course varies according to the occupation involved. The maximum duration is four years; the minimum varies.

Objectives

The general objective is for the apprentice to acquire theoretical and practical knowledge of the occupation in a systematic and progressive manner while working in an enterprise.

Every Learning Programme is composed of:

- theoretical instruction designed to develop a basic knowledge of the job requirements;
- practical training, in which the participants can develop the skills that will permit them to do the job efficiently. In this part of the programme, which is completed in the factory, the participants have to undertake various activities which are arranged in an increasing order of difficulty.

Management

The programme is coordinated by INCE and the enterprise. A training committee is in charge of the programme administration. It is composed of the enterprise supervisor, a supervisor from INCE, and a representative of the workers. The instructor can be from INCE or another authorized institution, but in each case he has to follow the general guidelines of the programme.

When the enterprise first applies to the NLP, it must proceed in the following manner:

a. The enterprise selects an occupation for apprentices according to its particular needs.

b. The enterprise trains the apprentice according to the programme and attempts to instil in the new worker a favourable attitude towards the programme.

c. The enterprise organizes the work of the apprentice according to its production needs, and the apprentice has to learn the necessary operations as given in the programme, following the prescribed sequence and working for the stipulated number of hours.

d. The enterprise organizes the theoretical programme using the following:

- courses created by the INCE centres or by other specialized centres;
- INCE instructors or others from a specialized centre, who are employed on contract;
- INCE or other correspondence courses;
- textbooks;
- INCE distance learning courses.

If the enterprise wishes to develop programmes different from those included in the INCE list, it must observe the following criteria:

- the occupation must be widely practised;
- there must be an adequate ratio between practical and theoretical training (3 to 1);
- the occupation must not require previous experience in any other occupational area;
- the maximum duration for the course must be four years.

The respective curricula then have to be prepared to include the following:

- analysis of the occupation (Occupational Profile) (this covers identification, description, tasks which constitute the occupation, and breakdown of the tasks into individual operations);
- formulation of the objectives in terms of observable behaviour;

- organization of content (Programme of Theoretical Training and Programme of Practical Training);
- evaluation.

These curricula are then sent to INCE for approval.

Examinations and Certificates

The evaluation of learners takes the following forms:

a. There is periodical assessment in order to establish whether the apprentices are acquiring the necessary theoretical knowledge and practical skills. Upon entering the programme, the apprentice receives a student notebook, in which all personal data and results of this performance, including assessment results, are registered.

b. The supervisor reports on the performance of each apprentice.

c. A final examination is taken either at INCE centres or in the enterprises. If the examination is carried out in the enterprises, an Evaluation Committee makes the final decision. The examination is administered by the Supervisor of the Programme, the INCE supervisor of learning, and the immediate supervisor of the apprentice. If the apprentice passes this final examination he receives a certificate stating that he is a qualified worker in the relevant occupation.

Equivalence

Apprentices can obtain credit for previous knowledge before they enter the programme; appropriate modifications are then made to their particular programme.

Since May 1980, according to Presidential Decree No. 604, apprentices who complete their studies in the NPL are regarded as having acquired the equivalent of studies at the Primary and Secondary (Basic Cycle) Education level in the formal system. This is important in that it links the NPL to the formal educational system.

Practical Aspects

a. As soon as the programme is initiated the enterprises have to send the apprentices their contracts and registration documents.

b. Control of the theoretical programme: According to INCE law, the enterprises must give the apprentices the necessary time to study the subjects within the programme. The activities of INCE centres or other authorized centres are supervised and the attendance, activities and periodical assessment results of the apprentices are registered. A learning supervisor goes to the Centre every month and evaluates the instructor's activities, including his pedagogical methods. He then has to submit a report of each visit.

c. Supervision of practical training: During this stage the apprentices have to fill in the "Practice Check Form", in which they register the number of hours worked and the tasks covered in the programme. The learning supervisor will verify, together with the apprentice's immediate supervisor, whether the practice has been carried out in accordance with the corresponding programme. The INCE supervisor has to:

- interview the apprentice's immediate supervisor concerning behaviour, assistance, achievement, problems and solutions;
- observe the apprentice at work in order to ensure that he needs only the normal length of time to perform each task;
- ask the apprentice his opinion of the programme, activities and evaluation, find out if he has problems, guide him in the search for solutions and remind him of his obligations as an apprentice.

If the enterprise itself cannot offer practical training, it may make an arrangement with INCE and pay the cost of the training and the subsistence of the apprentice. If the enterprise does not engage apprentices, it has to pay INCE 14,480 bolivares for each apprentice, i.e. the estimated annual cost of study and maintenance of a NPL participant.

USING ACADEMICALLY-ORIENTED PROGRAMMES AND INSTITUTIONS PARALLEL TO THE FORMAL SCHOOL SYSTEM AS LS FOR PL AND CE[10]

The main feature of the LS in this category is that they establish links with the formal education system.

In oder to provide a basic level of education for all, links have been established between formal, non-formal and informal educational systems so as to allow the unrestricted passage from one to another.

In certain cases, contents appear to be identical and are governed by a single national standard. Courses differ only in their methods, their calendar arrangements, disciplinary demands, and the role assigned to the teacher. Elsewhere, the contents of courses are aimed at specific groups, determined by age, occupation, sex, etc. In both cases, there is active interaction between the various forms of learning which constitute the whole of the educational system. Given the rigidity of the formal system and the general tendency to limit education solely to what is received inside this system, the broader strategies of PL have also been called Opening the Formal System, Second Chance Education, etc.

As can be seen from the experiences presented below, some of the programmes selected are formal in nature while others are nonformal. As for vocational programmes, it must be remembered that the examples below are not the only ones that exist and may also not be the most successful. However, some of these, such as the Spare-Time Schools in China and the One-Class School in Egypt, seem to be unique in several ways, whilst others are based on the innovative use of predominant models and trends.

Integrated Education and the Self-Teaching Programme in Brazil[11]

Two of the *MOBRAL* programmes were created in order to give the clientele new opportunities for continuing their studies às well as improving their standard of living. These programmes are "Integrated Education" and "Self-Teaching and Vocational Training". They were intended for neo-literates and for other members of the community who had passed through formal education without obtaining a course-completion certificate.

The Integrated Education Programme (PEI)

This programme, which was part of MOBRAL's Supplementary Education Programme, took as its starting point studies of topics connected with the basic requirements of living. There was no pre-established sequence of approach. The study of each topic, focusing on the interests and needs of the group, was in each case initiated by examining a poster and a text. The resultant activities took the form of group work with an interchange of experiences, active participation by all, discussion and a search for solutions to any problems which arose.

Implementation of the programme was the responsibility of the state and municipal boards of education. By agreement with the boards, MOBRAL supplied the teaching materials and trained the teachers. The boards of education were then responsible for providing the necessary human resources and material supplies, as well as the facilities for running the classes and organizing the programme.

In 1973 the Federal Board of Education recognized the programme as equivalent to the first four grades of elementary education. This ensured that evaluation formed a part of the process and that course-conclusion certificates were issued by the boards of education. MOBRAL was separately authorized to enter into agreements with private schools which could issue certificates of educational achievement, as long as they were duly recognized by the state or municipal agencies in the sector concerned. MOBRAL was at the same time authorized to issue the certificates - which were valid throughout Brazil - without further sanction from the boards of education.

Since 1973 the boards of education have been entitled to distribute a minimum study schedule of 720 hours, by stages, and the respective programmes could last from ten to eigtheen months. However, the flexibility of this programme meant that certain students could attain the objectives after, say 400, 500 or 600 hours' work, whereas others who required over 720 hours could then enrol again.

Teachers for the programme were trained in two separate stages, the strategy being to use a multiplier effect. In the first stage, the Central MOBRAL team trained teachers representing each municipality, whilst in the second, these teachers then trained the entire teaching body. After 1971, training activities were carried out by the Central MOBRAL team (through the state and territorial coordination offices or the overall supervision sub-system), and by the boards of education. The teaching materials and guidelines drawn up by MOBRAL constituted the basic resources for training activities.

The Self-Teaching Programme

The Self-Teaching Programme was geared to the training of lay teachers but also allowed for "the proposal of specific activities aimed at the utilization of materials in strategies equivalent to those employed in the first four elementary grades, providing these activities have been authorized by the respective State Councils on Education"[12] The Self-Teaching Programme was based on the principles that education is a process in which the individual learns how to acquire knowledge and train himself, and that it is possible to learn only what one discovers oneself. Thus, educational action should provide conditions which allow the individual to become the agent of his own education.

In the light of the programme's objectives, it was stipulated that preferential attention should be given to the rural areas. The following scale of priorities was established for enrolment in the programme:

- literacy teachers;
- learners from the Functional Literacy course;
- teachers in the Integrated Education Programme;
- students in the Integrated Education Programme;
- the community at large.

Specific features of the programme were:

- topics presented for study had to be of interest and relevance to the students;
- the topic to be worked on at each period was chosen in all cases by the student himself; there was no pre-determined order for study of the various topics;
- the time devoted to each subject depended on the rate of learning and interest of each student;
- students could join or leave the courses at any time;
- students had personal access to learning materials so that they might also learn on their own;

- each topic was studied both by working with didactic texts and by carrying out complementary activities.

MOBRAL placed two kinds of didactic material at the disposal of the students. The basic material, for individual use, consisted of:

- three books from the PEI (Integrated Education Programme) set;
- activity guidelines (with topics related to work, communications, transportation, the human body, the community, culture, agriculture and animal husbandry, Brazil, skills training, hygiene and health, the social environment, and mathematics).

A programme monitor was set up at each Cultural Post, which was responsible for the orientation, follow-up and evaluation of the activities of the participants. The activities of the monitor and other responsible persons at a municipality level were in turn followed up by the Sub-system for Overall Supervision - SUSUG - and the Pedagogic Agency. The workers responsible for this follow-up activity at the various levels gave training, carried out cooperative evaluation, made contact with the clientele, etc.

Spare-Time Schools in China[13]

China adopted the "running school" system in a variety of forms in order to develop literacy, post-literacy and continuing education. This system takes its name from the walking-on-two-legs" policy, i.e., developing the educational system by setting up schools run both by the state and by the population itself. The most popular form adopted is spare-time study, a system whereby education is given to people who are partly or wholly released from work or who attend classes for which the dates and times can be either fixed or flexible. The system has six levels, beginning with spare-time literacy and technical primary-level schools and culminating in national secondary and higher open broadcast and television schools and universities. The intermediary levels are spare-time literacy and technical middle-level schools; secondary professional schools; full-time, part-time and spare-time universities and colleges; and correspondence courses and evening classes. In order to consolidate the foundations of this system and to ensure a continual learning process, a set of measures have been adopted throughout the country to stabilize and reinforce newly-acquired literacy skills. The Jiang Yang County of Sichuan Province serves as an example. This county had virtually eliminated illiteracy by the spring of 1979; in the summer of the same year it entered into a period of consolidation. The specific measures taken were:

- Deepening the ideological understanding of the cadres and those who had attained literacy so as to dispel the idea that literacy education has reached its peak and cannot proceed any further.
- Adopting diverse forms of study according to individual needs and local conditions:
  a. study groups which meet for a centralized study session once a week;
  b. spare-time study groups;
  c. guidance in self-study;

d. educational broadcasts for the population every two days;

e. family study groups.

- Compiling new teaching materials with new contents:

  a. to practise copying and dictation and improve learners' knowledge of 1,500-2,000 basic Chinese characters through exercises;

  b. to provide guidance in reading by organizing the pupils to read extensively (newspapers and popular books), so as to develop vocabulary, broaden the scope of their knowledge, and improve reading and comprehension skills;

  c. to encourage writing practice and thus improve writing ability;

  d. to enhance arithmetic (including reckoning with the abacus).

  In line with the above requirements *Farmer's Reading Textbook*, *Textbook of Individual Characters*, and *Characters Commonly Used in the Countryside* have been issued in editions of 140 thousand copies which are distributed among the students according to the learning requirements of different stages.

- Launching reading and writing activities on a grand scale through a movement called "hundred, thousand and ten thousand" (i.e. to read a hundred articles, to write a thousand sentences, and to copy ten thousand characters). This activity can be combined with the teaching of the *Characters Commonly Used in the Countryside* book, in which reading and writing is practised for a certain time after learning new characters. Reading materials include the *Farmer's Daily*, picture books, and popular rural books. In additon to this, the county library and 376 brigade libraries exchange their books once a month so as to provide enough books for most of the pupils to read. People are also encouraged to exchange books among themselves. Those who have just reached literacy keep their books with them all the time so that they can read them as soon as they get some spare time.

- Enhancing learners' understanding and memory further by letting them apply what they have learned to actual practice in production and in daily life. Integration of learning with practice and learning while practising are encouraged. All those who have attained literacy are called on to keep accounts, write diaries and informal notes, and write personal letters to friends and relatives.

There are many different techniques for carrying out the plan of literacy and continuing education in China. But the principal one is by running the various adult education schools (classes or groups), while raising the political, cultural, scientific and technological levels of the broad masses through newspapers, magazines, books and cultural activities. The main components of this technique are the following.

Spare-Time Literacy and Technical Schools at the Primary Level

Since the founding of the People's Republic, spare-time primary schools have been widely set up both in factories and in the countryside. As a result, illiteracy amongst the workers has been virtually eliminated; now all have a common educational level equivalent to primary school graduates or above. The spare-time literacy and technical schools at the primary level are held mainly in rural (village) production brigades or full-time primary schools in the countryside. There are many different names used for this kind of school, such as Peasant Night School, Peasant Spare-Time School, Peasant Elementary Literacy and Technical School, etc. However, the level of education is in all cases similar to that of literacy education and the various classes and grades of the formal primary schools.

These courses are of two or three years' duration and are prolonged or shortened according to the amount of spare time available for study. Their objectives are to enlarge vocabulary, to develop reading and writing abilities, knowledge and computing skills up to the level of primary-school graduates. The courses make use of either the unified textbooks for peasant and worker spare-time primary schools, which are compiled by the state, or the textbooks compiled by the provinces or autonomous regions. Each class is staffed with one or two part-time teachers from full-time schools or with young people who have graduated from junior middle schools or above and have had some teaching experience, or retired teachers. These teachers receive a certain amount of payment.

Pupils who have successfully completed the required courses and passed the examinations are awarded the graduation certificate of the Part-time Primary School by the Bureau of Education under the People's Government of the county or municipality. This certificate is the equivalent of that awarded by the regular full-time primary school.

The spare-time schools are run by departments and affiliated organizations, enterprises, trade unions, etc., take place at provincial, prefectural and county levels and are organized by communes and brigades. They are based on a system of Night Schools run by Day Schools.

In order to encourage the qualification of adequate numbers of personnel, Higher Education Directorate Commissions for Education for Self-Taught People have been set up at state, provincial, municipality and autonomous regional levels. If self-taught people give sufficient evidence of their suitability by passing the relevant examinations sponsored by the Higher Education Directorate Commissions for Examinations and the colleges and universities appointed by the Commissions, the State recognizes their academic achievements and their experiences at work and their salaries are adjusted accordingly.

The CAFAM Continuing Education Programme in Colombia[14]

Since 1981, the *Family Subsidy Fund (CAFAM)* has developed its Continuing Education Programme for workers, employees and adults in general who desire to attain a higher and better level of education.

An attractive aspect of the programme is its flexibility both in its management and in its curriculum. The latter is based on the *modular system* and the *self-learning approach*.

The self-learning aspect applies particularly to the participant's ability to organize his own time, rather than having it organized for him.

Although the different learning strategies are structured, the adult has the option of selecting any of them according to his particular situation (study in small groups, tutoring or independent study). There is no fixed time schedule which follows the learning process or the evaluation periods. Each individual can pace his own progress and decide for himself when he wants to take the evaluation test, even though he basically works within a small group.

The programme offers him a range of knowledge organized methodically. The participant decides on the number of skills he wishes to acquire at one time. If he has no problems with the material, he sits the evaluation test. If he has encountered difficulties, however, he has the following options: he can consult the study group which is working on the same subject, he can consult the group monitor and, in the last resort, he can consult the evaluator. This system is very useful to the participant. If for any reason he has to withdraw temporarily from the programme, his learning does not suffer the setbacks which would occur within the usual framework of study. The participant knows that his constant reference point is the relevant study module.

At present, the programme comprises three major learning stages:

i. the development of basic skills;
ii. basic primary education;
iii. basic secondary education.

Each stage is organized in "competencies", which are independent learning units with short-term goals. The instructional material of a competency is the module. Each area comprises various competencies.

These stages and competencies do not correspond to the levels and grades of the traditional formal system as regards contents, structure, strategies, objectives and administration. In particular, they are not bound to the time and classroom organization which characterize traditional schooling.

The organization of the programme is both flexible and structured. The modular approach offers the participant only one or two attainable short-term goals at any given time; once these are accomplished, the participant may go on or return later and proceed to more advanced ones.

As regards the sequence of topics, new modules may be introduced if there is a need for new skills of information, or any of the modules can be postponed if the level attained by a specific regional group is not sufficiently advanced. This is what is meant by an open and flexible structure.

On the other hand, the content also deals with life situations and life values, both of which are developed according to the characteristics of the particular group involved, paying attention to socio-political aspects which arise. This demonstrates that the programme is integrated into a more holistic view of the participants' personal situation.

The learning which takes place within the CAFAM Continuing Education Programme is based on materials, study sessions and complementary activities. The materials consist of booklets and modules, audiovisual aids such as video-cassettes, illustrated series and other printed materials such as study guides and leaflets. The study sessions are supported by various activities such as group monitoring, individual tutoring and guidance from the evaluator.

In addition to the above, study and discussion guides have been prepared with different objectives in mind. Guidance is necessary in using the supplementary texts and reading materials. This is provided in the form of study guides which contain questions allowing the student to:

- read the texts in an organized manner;
- analyze the facts presented in the texts;
- reach his own conclusions;
- prepare a summary of the text.

The study guides also aid discussion and reflection, with a view to reinforcing intellectual curiosity and developing critical ability.

This is supplemented by study sessions, during which the participant is given the opportunity to carry out several learning activities such as participating in study groups which are on his level, requesting individual help from a tutor or evaluator and participating in complementary activities, in the form of campaigns dealing with various topics.

All the above learning strategies are supported by a series of emotional elements (self-esteem and human values). These are expressed through small interaction groups, through the institutional environment, academic and psychological support provided by the programme's coordinators and evaluators, lectures, audiovisual campaigns and informal and institutionalized communication via a committee drawn from among the participants.

Parallel Education in Cuba

The *Cuban* educational system is conceived of as a whole and offers several points of entry. It is characterized by the desire to provide an essential educational minimum to the whole of the population. At the outset, this basic educational level was equivalent to primary education, but now it has reached the ninth grade level. This development has been effected through campaigns carrying such slogans as *La Batalla del Sextro Grado* (The Battle for the Sixth Grade) and *La Batalla del Noveno Grado* (The Battle for the Ninth Grade). Thus from the formal system onwards, there are specified national norms, which are attained through various channels open to young people, industrial workers, peasants, etc. Sometimes this takes the form of regular and frequent lessons (four times a week, for three and a quarter hours per day for adults), while in other instances there are courses once a week for eight hours at a time. The latter offer blocks of subjects of a limited nature and students are subject to a strict examination in them. All these types of educational development are incorporated in the socio-vocational structures which are aligned with the formal system. This can be seen, for example, in the case of the Junior Secondary Schools for Adults and the Higher Secondary Education for Adults. Radio and televison broadcast extensively to schools. They may play a major role in providing educational links, as was the case in *La Batalla del Sextro Grado* and *La Batalla del Noveno Grado* or they may constitute just one of its component parts, as is the case with the televized broadcasts *Matemática Recreativa* and *Radio Pedagogía*.

One-Class School in Egypt[15]

Egypt has developed a strategy for increasing the opportunities of acquiring literacy and further education for school-age children who cannot enrol in a formal school because there is no school in their area, for drop-outs who never completed the primary stage and for those among the population who have relapsed into illiteracy. This strategy is the one-class school, which is open three hours daily, five days a week. It takes place in mosques, formal school buildings or in huts and is held throughout the country, especially in areas where no school exists, in sparsely populated regions or in places where schools do not have enough room for all school-age children in the vicinity.

The one-class school is conceived as an alternative to the formal system for children aged 6 to 8 who have no access to school, and as a second chance for those who dropped out from school and want to continue their education, developing their knowledge and basic skills as well as their cultural skills in such a way that they are enabled to contribute better to community activities. Although no specific syllabus or books have been prepared for the one-class schools, their curriculum includes religious education, learning the Koran, the Arabic language, arithmetic, social studies, science and health along with vocational training. Frequent use is made of the books provided for the primary stage of the formal education system.

Channels which exist between the formal and non-formal systems allow students of the one-class school to transfer to the formal primary school once they have accomplished the requirements of a specific level and passed the examinations of the second or fourth grade. The primary level can be achieved in three years and a certificate is awarded to the learners who pass the primary certificate examination.

Learners attending the one-class school are classified into groups according to the results of an oral and written test. The first level group is composed of total illiterates. They are expected to achieve a level equal to the second primary grade. The second level group includes pupils who have acquired the basic skills of reading and writing but then dropped out of school. They should reach a level equivalent to that of the fourth grade of primary education. The third level comprises students who are able to read and write well and solve arithmetic problems. These pupils tend to have dropped out of school at the fourth grade and now want to achieve a level equivalent to the sixth grade.

Usually, different groups work in the same classroom and the teachers divide the work among them. Each group is assigned an objective which must be attained within a specific period of time. The curriculum is flexible. It allows adaption to the level of the learners and the level of the teachers. It takes into consideration the local environment and the learners' concerns in religious, national and social matters. The duration of learning and the learning period are defined according to the convenience of the students. No fees are charged.

Not all teachers in these schools have had initial teacher-training. Some are Koran memorizers, imams in mosques or public or civil servants. They require special training to provide individual attention, classify the students into groups and follow their progress in learning. Supervision of the one-class schools is the responsibility of the governors. A head of department is appointed to do the work, or the work is assigned to adult educators or special advisers. One-class schools are usually related to a "mother" formal school which is responsible for giving guidance in its management.

Adult Basic Education in Kuwait[16]

Kuwait has developed a system of education for adults parallel to the formal school system as an opportunity for adults to acquire literacy skills and continue education. All persons aged 14 and above can benefit from this second chance, which is based on the principle of lifelong education.

Some similarities and differences between the two systems deserve attention. Both adult education and the formal school system for the young, which complement each other in providing educational services to two very different categories of participants, share the objectives of a comprehensive education: "to attain integration of the physical, intellectual, spiritual and moral personality". Both of them enable their graduates at the secondary stage, after receiving the general secondary certificate, to enrol in institutes of applied continuing education or in the university for various careers. They are well qualified for specific government training programmes or for a range of jobs.

Adult education in Kuwait is parallel to the formal school system at three stages of the prescribed sequence: the primary stage, which is called the literacy stage in adult education, the intermediate stage and the secondary stage. At the end of each of the stages students are assumed to be equally qualified.

The skills to be developed are the same in literacy and primary education: although the curriculum of the former has been adapted to suit the adult learner, the time is reduced to 15 classes per week for two academic years instead of the 30 classes required for children for four years, and a different syllabus and books have been prepared for adults. At the intermediate and secondary stages the adaptation has not yet been made, so syllabus and books are common to both systems. The weekly time is, however, still reduced from 30-32 hours per week for the young to 20-22 for adults; adults are therefore not offered physical education, art, music and home economics. The intermediate and secondary stages are covered in four years in both cases. The students must take end-of-term examinations at the three levels. The examinations of the secondary stage are the same for both adults and children.

Two other aspects of integration between the two parallel systems are:

- The use made of the day-school facilities by the adult learners, who attend classes in the evening. This, of course, reduces costs. Additional adult education centres have only been constructed where they are required.
- The selection of teachers and advisers from among those employed in the formal public school system, since a minimum experience of not less than three years is one of the criteria for the selection of adult educators, along with a professional grade of "good" or above.

Apart from the differences already mentioned regarding the duration of the courses at the different stages and the adaptation of the curriculum for the literacy stage, there are other differences between the two systems. These were introduced in order to make learning both suitable for and acceptable to adults:

- Classes for adults take place in the evening.
- The adult educators are offered methodological advice on the teaching of adults according to subject.
- The method of teaching and dealing with adults is based on the psychology of adults in order to prevent their dropping out because of being treated like children.
- Adults take a final examination in each subject at the end of each term, rather than weekly or monthly tests, as in the case of the formal school system.
- Special incentives for motivating adults to continue their education have been established. Some of these are: allowing adults to repeat courses with no limit to the number of times; granting them special leave from work to attend the examinations; giving students at the literacy stage a second chance to take the examinations; and

participating in community health and cultural programmes especially prepared for adult learners.

From the analysis presented above it is clear that Kuwait's efforts are geared to providing a broad category of people from the age of 14 who lack an adequate level of education with the same knowledge and skills as those provided by the formal school system for the young. All those illiterates who never attended school, those who dropped out from school early to join the world of work, workers who need a certification of a certain level of education in order to apply for promotion in their work, and all those who have acquired literacy and want to further their education, can find in the parallel system of adult education the previously missed opportunity of raising their educational level.

General Continuing Education in Thailand[17]

The stated purpose of general continuing education, whether it be based on the school or the community, has been to provide learners with the basic information they need in their daily lives and to serve as a necessary background for the learner to acquire a more refined or sophisticated body of knowledge and skills. General continuing education has sometimes enjoyed greater prestige than its vocational counterpart; it has frequently served more to help learners climb up the academic ladder than to make a direct impact in their private lives. Learners seem to prefer competing for increasingly limited seats at the higher levels of education. Education enabling individuals to become "white collar" workers in the civil service, as initially conceived in the reign of King Rama V, is now firmly established in *Thailand.*

Such education, however, has recently been severely criticized as giving learners false or unrealistic hopes for the future: formal school education has not always been immediately applicable to real-life situations. Contemporary educators have attempted to provide alternatives with the concept of lifelong learning.

Even before the Adult Education Division initiated general continuing education ten years ago, the Thai educational system had already made available equivalency examinations at education offices throughout the country. Through these, many Thai adults have indeed been able to better themselves and have gone on to attain important government and non-government positions.

Learners

The programme was conducted throughout the country, with well over one hundred thousand graduates per year. Among learners in this programme were both those with clear goals and objectives and those without them. The former took certificate programmes to enable them to move further up the educational ladder and obtain employment. At the same time, there were those who merely wanted to add to their experience. But regardless of movitation, the rewards were worthwhile. Learners not only obtained financial benefits, but gained confidence, recognition and a sense of individual worth.

Types of Programme

The former Adult Education Division (AED) initiated the concept of general continuing education in 1969. The AED made use of the available classroom facilities and the staff of the regular formal schools, and at the same time took charge of curriculum planning, budget allocation, supervision, and follow-up activities. At the start, these programmes were organized into 3 levels above the functional literacy level (Levels 1-2):

Level 3 (Equivalent to Grade 6)
Level 4 (Equivalent to Grade 9)
Level 5 (Equivalent to Grade 12).

The curriculum of both Level 3 and Level 4 covered six subject areas: Thai language, English, arithmetic, science, social sciences, and optional vocational subjects. Students had to pass each of these subjects, normally taking about 1½ years to qualify for the certificates equivalent to those in the formal system. For Level 5, the upper secondary curriculum was used without any adaptation, requiring two years to complete as in the formal system. Students had to repeat each class that they failed.

Curriculum Reforms

In recent years, curriculum modifications have been made in response to reforms in the formal education curriculum. First, a system of credit hours with a number of electives is used in place of a set curriculum with minimal electives. Second, the structure has been changed to be consistent with the changes made in the formal school system, i.e., Level 3 is now equivalent to Grade 6, Level 4 to Grade 9, and Level 5 to Grade 12. Presently, the out-of-school education Level 5 is being offered in those schools where upper secondary education classes (Grades 10-11-12) are offered, usually in the municipal areas or in large cities.

For general continuing education Levels 3 and 4, curricula which initially had a strong academic emphasis were revised to make them more suited to the kinds of situation that learners have to deal with every day. New methods and processes of instruction, evaluation, and testing were also introduced, with the general approach based on problem-solving. Students are encouraged to share insights and experiences in solving common problems. Teachers stimulate or motivate the learning processes and supply the technical information learners require. The new curriculum is called "Functional Continuing Education". Since the individuals who teach these classes are accustomed to traditional, more directive methods (because they are teachers in formal schools), they have to undergo a special training programme before becoming eligible to teach Functional Education classes.

The Functional Education Levels 3 and 4 are presently being offered both in secondary and primary schools in the more populated areas all over the country. Most learners are between 14 and 25 years of age. In smaller communities, the students of the Functional Education classes are easily distinguished by their uniforms. Although uniforms are not required, many students choose to wear them, as this seems to give them the recognition they desire.

Complementary Education in Vietnam[18]

Literacy training in *Vietnam* is not an end in itself. It is rather the first step towards a continuing process of mass education. In order to further the efforts of literacy and mass education, a parallel system of formal and nonformal education, called *Complementary Education*, has been developed. In Vietnam, Complementary Education is a specific form of PL and CE which provides a systematic yet flexible learning environment for neo-literates. The programme is flexible since it may be full-time or part-time, can be arranged in a formal classroom as well as in a factory situation and the level is in accordance with the learners' initial level of education. Similarly, it provides for a whole range of learners from different age groups who are occupied in a variety of professions. The different courses run under Complementary Education are of three kinds:

1. *Full-Time Complementary Education Schools*. These include second-level schools for middle-aged cadres and employees, second- and third-level schools for young people, and third-level schools for adult cadres.
2. *Part-Time Complementary Education Schools*. The programmes offered include schools for general first-level education, second-level CE schools for adult cadres, second-level work-and-study CE schools for rural youth, second-level CE schools run by the enterprises, and third-level CE schools for cadres, employees and young people.
3. *Specific-Topic Nonformal Education*. Evening classes for illiterate children and specific schools and classes in ethnic-minority areas complete the range of Vietnamese Complementary Education.

   Examples of these programmes are presented below.

Full-Time Complementary Education Schools for Adult Cadres and Employees

The main purpose is to study science and technology as a basis for more effective work and for further studies at the Complementary Education third level. The learners include about 150-200 pupils recruited from the village and district cadres who are 35 years old and above and have fairly slow receptivity. The classes for these learners are held near the district towns, or possibly in two or three different inter-village locations, accessible to the village cadres.

The curriculum includes the following subjects, with the time allocation given below:

Subjects	Periods	Subjects	Periods
General Vietnamese	275	Mathematics	426
History	28	Physics	126
Geography	45	Chemistry	65
Politics	64	Biology	76
Economic Management	56	Farming Techniques	112

There are textbooks on all these subjects and reference books on technology and farming.

Teaching and Learning Process

The major teaching technique consists of lectures and explanations, supplemented by experiments in courses such as physics, chemistry and biology. Participants do group and individual study, as well as extra library reading on work and production. As part of the extra-curricular activities, sports, games, films and other forms of entertainment are arranged at free times.

Funds

Learners on the government payroll cover their own food costs; village cadres are given scholarships. Other expenses are covered by the Government.

Evaluation

This type of school has been under development now for nearly 30 years and has brought about tremendous results by providing training and retraining for hundreds of thousands of village and district cadres. At present, there are very few of them in the Northern plains, but they are proving very useful and their numbers are expanding rapidly in the newly-liberated areas in the South and in the mountainous regions.

Full-Time Second and Third-Level Complementary Education Schools for Young People

The main goal is to train future cadres and employees of about 30 years of age - young workers and farmers with outstanding records in work, production and military service. The schools cater for 300 to 500 learners on average (1,000 learners in some cases) and are located near a provincial town, one school for each province.

The subjects are the same as those covered in the Complementary Education classes for middle-aged cadres and employees, with an emphasis on general topics such as language, mathematics, sciences, etc., while reducing the time allocated to the training in farming techniques. The course for the second level takes two years and that for the third level three years, the curriculum of the latter being similar to that of third-level General Education.

Full-Time Third-Level Complementary Education Schools for Middle-Aged Cadres

This type of school is intended exclusively for cadres in the 40 to 50-year age bracket who need higher instruction in order to be able to work more effectively but do not require university or college education. The curriculum is restricted to the most essential aspects of the subjects involved, with minimal attention paid to difficult theories.

The approach used as regards teaching-learning methods, extra-curricular activities and funding is similar to that found in other types of Complementary Education schools.

Part-Time Complementary Education Programmes

Part-time Complementary Education Schools in Vietnam are schools attended by people in employment after working hours. Their sessions are held mostly at noon or in the evenings. Courses for cadres and employees may, however, when necessary, be held in the afternoon several times a week or for three to four days a month, with official leave for those cadres who do mobile work.

Part-Time Schools for First-Level Education

The main goal is to further consolidate learners' skills in reading, writing and arithmetic and to give them practical instruction which can be used to improve their living environment and production. Therefore, those who are capable enough and wish later to carry on further studies at the second level (mostly village cadres) are provided with this curriculum in preparation for that level.

The learners include all literate working people up to 45 years of age for men and 40 years for women, as well as all village cadres, and cadres working for the cooperative organization, who have not finished the first-level course.

The curriculum includes the following subjects, with periods allocated as follows:

Subjects	Periods	Duration
- Basic course for everyone		36 weeks (10 periods a week)
Vietnamese	210	
Arithmetic	150	
- Intensive course for those wishing to continue education (among others the main courses include):		50 weeks (about 12 periods per week)
Vietnamese	105	
Arithmetic	105	
Popular Science	30	

Classes are usually held in the village where the learners are working. Teachers from General Education schools, as well as technical cadres from the village, are invited to do part-time teaching. The teachers usually give talks and answer questions, whilst the learners do exercises and individual and group study.

The funds are provided by the village or the cooperative organization that runs the school. The Government provides full-time instructors and learning materials. Learners also make some financial contributions for part-time instructors.

Part-Time Second-Level Complementary Education for Middle-Aged Cadres

The aim of these schools is to provide learners with the instruction they need to fulfil their current tasks. These programmes, which are operating mainly in the southern part of the country, are attended by village cadres of 35 years and above who have leading positions in their villages, but have, nevertheless, for various reasons remained illiterate.

Teachers from General Education schools and technical cadres from the villages are invited to do the teaching. Their lessons are supplemented by exercises and drills, visual aids, maps and experiments which are carried out in the laboratories of village General Education schools. Learners do homework (with special emphasis on exercises in the Vietnamese language and in applied mathematics) and prepare reports, talks, etc. These courses are run in the villages for 35 weeks, with 8 periods per week.

The Government pays for instructors and materials. The villages operate their schools, and learners cover their own daily expenses.

After many attempts, this target group has been found to be receptive only to very concise and practical instructions. If they were to follow the curriculum provided for young people, the project would be a total failure. However, because this programme has been specially adapted to the needs and capabilities of the target group, the majority of cadres in leading positions in their villages, many of whom were active leaders in the wars of resistance, become educated and can continue in their work.

Part-Time Second-Level Work-and-Study Complementary Education Schools for Rural Youth

A considerable number of young people in the villages who completed only the first level of General Education before entering the working world have discovered many gaps in their education which need to be filled, which is the function of part-time second-level schools. Learners attend courses as well as carrying out their normal day's work. The idea behind this is to provide them with a practical education which they can then use in their work. Education here often takes the form of research into production techniques, whereby land and tools are provided by the schools for the learners to experiment with. The school may thus in the long run be turned into a technical centre which helps the cooperative by finding new varieties of rice seeds, studying the effects of fertilizers, undertaking soil irrigation for the co-operative, etc. In return for this, the cooperative often provides learners with real jobs in production. This type of school is therfore known as a "work-and-study school".

Participants

The learners include all young people who have completed the first-level course and have joined in with the production work of the villages. For these young learners, classes are organized in the villages themselves in order to save time and make the programme more effective.

Curriculum

The curriculum and materials are the same as for the full-time second-level Complementary Education schools for young people mentioned above. However, the longer duration of four years is due to the fact that the learners must still do manual work in addition to attending classes every day.

Teaching-Learning Method

The instructors give talks on practical application, help the learners do their practice work in the rice paddies, and conduct studies together with the learners on production problems of the cooperatives. Accordingly, the learners listen to explanations, conduct individual and group studies, and attempt to put into practice what has been taught in class. Teachers from General Education schools and workers from the cooperatives who have been trained in farming techniques are invited to run the classes. Various cultural and extra-curricular activities are also organized for the learners.

The villages and the cooperatives supply instructional materials, provide land, and pay part-time instructors. The learners are provided with work opportunities by the cooperative for their manual work. The Government provides managerial cadres, including full-time instructors, and materials for teaching and learning.

This type of school has been very successful in improving the functioning of production in the cooperatives. Many of these schools have helped to solve technical problems related to production. These schools consequently have the full support of district, village and cooperative leaders.

Part-Time Second-Level Complementary Education Schools Operated by Enterprises

The goal of these schools is to provide employees of enterprises in the urban and industrial areas with technical and cultural second-level education, primarily in order to help workers gain a deeper knowledge of the techniques that they are applying in production.

A large number of classes are offered, each for a small group of workers. As a result, the instructors have to teach the same lesson many times over. Another problem is that each enterprise has its own technical requirements. The adult education programme therefore cannot provide uniform instruction and materials on industrial technology in general; this task depends to a large extent on the enterprises themselves.

Part-Time Third-Level Complementary Education Schools for Cadres, Employees and Young People

A majority of cadres, employees and young people wish to continue their studies at the third level in order to be able to attend courses on technology. This has led to the formation of part-time third-level Complementary Education Schools in the urban areas. Due to lack of time and to a shortage of instructors, their curriculum is composed of only four subjects, viz. literature, mathematics, physics and chemistry. The learners have to study other subjects on their own.

Included in this group are also middle-aged cadres who now hold leading and managerial positions in the offices and enterprises but have not finished the third level and do not have the time to attend a full-time Complementary Education School. Those who are receptive to new instruction can attend the same schools as the young people. Those who wish to follow a more concise and practical syllabus can attend at the full-time third-level Complementary Education School mentioned above. For such students, however, the duration of study has to be extended to two years. They may enter any field of study.

Specific-Topic Nonformal Education

In the rural areas, farmers who have finished the first level of general education often wish to continue their learning. The specific-topic courses are aimed at providing them with additional instruction on production and environment.

Curriculum

There are three types of subject matter; living conditions, production, and improvement of general understanding.

The content of the courses is arranged into topics. Each topic is covered in one to three sessions. Various general topics are available in print for use throughout the country, but some rural districts may also offer certain specific topics which are directly related to local conditions. The materials used are printed by local centres and are arranged in volumes of ten topics each. The first volume of the series includes, for instance, the following topics:

- How to increase rice yields
- The sweet potato
- The soya bean
- Hog-breeding
- Sow-breeding
- Calculating distribution of products in the cooperative
- Family planning
- Prophylactic measures against parasites
- Birth control
- Electric shocks: precautions and first aid
- Improving the cooking stove
- Appreciation of our country.

Scheduling

Depending on the farmer's production intervals (e.g. after the planting season or after the harvest), two or three sessions per week are held lasting 1 1/2 to 2 hours each, at noon or in the evenings. Coverage of 30 topics is sufficient for one year. It is planned to print a total of 100 topics for three years' use.

Teaching Methods

Teachers from General Education schools, village technicians, and young people with third-level education carry out the teaching. The methods used include lectures and discussions with the learners. Pictures, films or slides are used for illustration. The teachers try to present the learning matter in a lively, attractive and intelligible manner at a level which can be easily understood by the students. Similarly, the students are expected to listen attentively to the presentation, with or without taking notes, take an active part in the discussion, and read the articles. Tests are administered after every ten lectures in order to evaluate how much has been learnt.

Funds

The Government is responsible for compiling and printing the learning materials. The provinces and districts guide the villages in developing the courses. Instructors' fees are paid through financial contributions made by the cooperative or by the students themselves.

Evaluation

Specific-topic non-formal courses constitute a new approach and a new form of instruction. Pilot projects conducted over two years in some villages have revealed that the results are very satisfactory. Students attend the courses with keen interest, since they find them both intelligible and practical, especially if they feel some degree of "freedom" as regards attendance.

Evening Classes for Illiterate Children

Despite government efforts to develop General Education, some children refuse to attend school or drop out. In order to achieve rapid universalization of first-level education, as well as national literacy, the Vietnamese educational service operates evening classes for these young illiterates. Those who are judged capable of following the General Education classes are granted permission to return to them.

Operational Aspects

Students attending these classes include all school-age children who have dropped out of first-level education or who have refused to go to school. Depending on the local situation, classes are organized in the hamlets, streets, or sub-districts. Their duration is three to four months for each group with classes roughly three evenings per week. The curriculum used in these classes is the same as for General Education schools, but more concise and with more emphasis laid on the two main subjects - Vietnamese and arithmetic calculation. The teaching methods used are also similar to those employed in the General Education schools, with somewhat more emphasis on cultural activities in order to make learning more attractive to the children. The instructors for these classes are recruited from teachers of General Education schools, Complementary Education instructors and literate young people. The instructional materials are compiled, printed and distributed by the respective provincial and municipal educational offices.

Funds

These courses are jointly oganized by the villages and urban sub-districts, the first and second-level General Education schools, and Complementary Education instructors. Expenses for textbooks, stationery, and instructors' fees are covered partly by the villages and the sub-districts and partly by voluntary contributions from individuals.

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Part III

Conclusion

Chapter 10

Two Examples of the Integrated Use of Learning Strategies

In this handbook we have selected and presented a number of LS which are currently being used in different contexts and for different learning purposes. These strategies have been grouped into seven categories. The basis for this grouping has already been given in Part I, Chapter 2. However, it is important to repeat what has already been emphasized, namely, that this grouping (and perhaps any other kind of grouping) may appear to be arbitrary because of the extreme diversity of the kind of LS employed. The main distinctions here are between Learning Resources, Media, Materials, Structures and Programmes, but there is in fact an overlap between the materials and structures used in various programmes: the use of combined LS is often essential in order to achieve the programme objectives.These programme objectives have been simplified into two broad categories, i.e., the **development-oriented** and the **academically**

oriented. It should be noted here that development-oriented programmes are not only those which aim at increasing material production, generating income or improving the standard of living, but can also be socio-cultural animation programmes which are designed to increase the individual's awareness of the potential contribution he can make to the organization and running of his local community. Academically oriented programmes are generally restricted to subject matter within a general education or pre-vocational framework. In order to optimize the results of both kinds of programme, it is important for practitioners to be aware of the diversity of the LS available, to realize their potential, and to make the most efficient use of them through combining strategies where appropriate.

Two examples of programmes combining most of the LS described in this handbook are presented below, namely:

i. *Acción Cultural Popular* (ACPO, Action for Popular Culture) programmes in Colombia; and

ii. the *Jana Shikshan Nilayams* (Village Continuing Education Centres) in India.

Acción Cultural Popular (ACPO)[1]

ACPO's programmes found success through the extensive adoption of a multi-media approach based on a combination of modern media with printed media and other post-literacy and continuing education LS.

ACPO is a private, non-profit-making religious organization which has been providing services for the rural Colombian population since 1947. As a development agency it provided basic integrated education for the Colombian *campesinos* (farmers) through the mass media, working on the premise that underdevelopment has its psychological roots in the minds of the people. This organization has pioneered the use of radio for educational purposes in Latin America.

Context

ACPO worked on the belief that the rural population could be incorporated into the mainstream of society and that with appropriate education and training campesinos could further their own development and begin to play a more active role in society.

Out of the 28 million people in the country, about 40 per cent live in rural areas. Because of the mountainous terrain, communications by land are still difficult in Colombia, and a large number of campesinos are physically isolated from urban centres: hence the need for combined use of the mass media as a means of education.

Objectives

The primary objectives pursued by ACPO included:

- motivating the campesinos towards integral development;
- individual and group development;
- integration of rural inhabitants into Colombian society;
- community organization and development based on solidarity between local and national levels;
- improvement in the economy through increased productivity.

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Methods

A system was developed by ACPO which aimed at reaching the scattered population through the mass media, especially by means of radio and printed material. In order to increase the participation of the campesino communities, as well as to ensure the appropriateness and adequacy of its programme content, ACPO complemented the media work with educational agents working in the communities, with volunteer campesinos serving as animators and teaching auxiliaries, and it supported and encouraged correspondence between learners and ACPO management.

Strategies

The Colombian system, which employed a combination of mass media and interpersonal action, using facilitators and campesino leaders, included the various LS which are given below:

1. *Radiophonic Schools*

Educational programmes covering various subjects, recreational programmes and information and cultural programmes were broadcast to the people by the radio station Sutatenza and also by several local stations which volunteered their services.

Radio Sutatenza had seven broadcasting stations located in Bogotá, Cali, Medellín, Barranquilla and Magangué. These had a daily broadcasting schedule of 19 hours, five of which were exclusively devoted to the methodology and the themes of the radiophonic schools.

A radiophonic school was a group of local people who benefited from one or more elements of the ACPO programmes for their training and development. The aims of the ACPO programmes were to make each home a school, educate the people towards solidarity, and help them assimilate the contents conveyed by the media with the help of a monitor. ACPO estimated a number of more than 40,000 local groups or radio schools, with more than 150,000 learners. No special buildings were needed. A small group of people (the average was less than seven), frequently family members or neighbours, simply met daily in one house to listen to the radio together, to read and comment on the booklets, the newspaper, the books, etc. The radio lessons lasted from 30 minutes to one hour, depending on the type of course. Lessons on basic courses (reading, writing and arithmetic) lasted for half an hour and were divided into two parts. The lessons for progressive and complementary courses were one hour long and were divided into five parts, corresponding to the various areas of learning (literacy, arithmetic, health, economy and work, and spiritual values). The length of each section and the order in which they were presented were variable.

The work in each area began with an introduction which usually summarized the themes previously broadcast, relating them to the new theme which followed. After a presentation of this theme, a summary and practical exercises were given.

The monitor played a key role, especially in the basic courses. In lessons dealing with the economy and with work, emphasis was given to the guidance provided by the facilitator in the practical work which accompanied each lesson as a complementary activity.

2. *Weekly Newspaper*

ACPO printed a weekly newspaper, *El Campesino*, which provided knowledge and varied information about national and international affairs, technological aspects relevant to the interests of the readers, opinions and politics, recreational material and material which could be used in schools and for new readers.

3. *Printed Booklets*

These were designed to complement the radio programmes and the weekly newspaper. Six booklets were published, containing information on health, the economy, community development, civic development, budgeting and numeracy skills, language and communication skills, continuing studies and also moral and civic values.

4. *The Campesino Library*

This carried a collection of more than 80 titles selected for the rural and urban fringe population. These books were easy to read and contained information about important aspects of technology which can be applied in daily life. They also dealt with a number of cultural issues and elements of human development concerned with the improvement of the quality of life both in the family and in the community.

5. *Recordings*

ACPO produced recordings, records and audiovisual aids (SONO-VISO) in order to extend further the range of educational impact. These were used by local volunteer radio stations and agencies working with specific groups and rural communities and community centres.

6. *Campaigns*

Campaigns (such as a campaign against alcohol, and a campaign for health) were a typical method used by ACPO. They represented in an objective form the results of the learning or acquisition of knowledge. The campaigns were focused in such a way as to respond to real needs. The method was a special one in the sense that it was not only intended to respond to the needs expressed by the people but also to make them conscious of the needs which must be fulfilled in order to change their ways of thinking and aim for better conditions of life. The aim of the campaigns was to improve or to change ways of thinking and behaving at the same time as changing the environment, by modifying individual and social values.

7. *Correspondence*

ACPO used correspondence as a means of:

- providing orientation and encouragement;
- responding to learners who raised queries or made comments about the mass-media programmes;
- enabling learners to ask for further help;
- receiving feedback from listeners; and
- providing a way of checking on the effectiveness of programmes.

8. *Institute for Leaders*

ACPO also established information centres to provide theoretical and practical training for leaders. The objectives of these centres were:

- to improve the participants' academic level;
- to increase their motivation and develop their skills as community leaders;
- to train them in conveying aspects of technology which could be used for the improvement of daily conditions in the areas of production, housing, nutrition, hygiene and health; and
- to train participants in community action, such as organizing the running of homes, villages and towns and ensuring the wellbeing of their inhabitants.

9. *Fieldworkers*

In order to make direct contact with the potential audience for its mass media programmes, ACPO created regional local organizations in which leaders who had received training from the institutes could operate. Their work involved:

- working with families, community organizations, government officials and non-governmental development agencies (i.e. churches and private organizations);
- encouraging the target population to participate in the programmes;
- providing feedback on the programmes; and
- instigating cultural events.

10. *Evaluation*

A large network of formal and nonformal means of evaluation were employed, ranging from personal interviews to correspondence with both students and leaders. In addition, various formal evaluations were carried out by national and international organizations other than ACPO.

11. *Consultancy*

Through its extensive combination of various programmes, ACPO accumulated valuable experience which could be used in serving other educational and social development agencies in the following ways:

- training planners and managers of nonformal education programmes; and
- training staff in the use of the media for distance education.

As can be seen, ACPO is an excellent example of a carefully planned network of learning strategies, using the multimedia approach. Other countries can usefully profit from the Colombian experience and, through it, gain ideas which may be of use for the enrichment of their own programmes.

It should also be noted that ACPO was not a government institution. It was a private, religious organization which devoted itself to improving the quality of life for rural inhabitants. What ACPO achieved in 30 years through using this combined approach is considerable; it is highly unfortunate that their activities were interrupted because of financial difficulties. There are a number of private organizations in other countries which could be drawn into such commitment, both at the national level and even at local levels. If these could be encouraged to work in close cooperation with one another, integrated programmes of an equally high standard could also be developed in these countries.

The Jana Shikshan Nilayams (Village Continuing Education Centres)[2]

In India, the eradication of illiteracy has been identified as one of the five National Missions which have been proposed with a view to applying technology and scientific research in areas which are critical to the country's development, for the benefit of the deprived sections of society. The Adult Education Programme is now being launched as the "National Literacy Mission" (NLM). This project aims at mobilizing social forces and increasing the active participation of the people by helping them realize the potential for substantial improvement in their living and working conditions.

Adult Education is being offered as a two-year course. During the first phase, intensive efforts are made to impart the basic literacy, numeracy, and general education which is relevant to the needs of the learners in daily life. During Phase II, efforts are made through Village Continuing Education Centres to increase and reinforce literacy skills. It is felt that the literacy and numeracy skills communicated in Phase I must be reinforced by further education in Phase II, in order to prevent any possibility of relapse. In Phase II the learners are introduced to the process of self-learning in the context of lifelong education.

The main goal of the National Policy on Education (NPE), 1986, was to strengthen literacy by means of the PL and follow-up programmes. The NPE's latest policy, therefore, is to implement a programme of adult and continuing education in various ways, including the establishment of centres in rural areas for CE. It has now been decided to set up *Jana Shikshan Nilayams* (Village Continuing Education Centres) in order to provide facilities for PL and CE, vocational training courses, newspapers, wall newspapers etc.

Facilities for CE for neo-literates are indispensable in attempting to develop a learning society. These CE programmes will be available not only for adults, but for primary school pupils as well. The programme envisages the following:

i. Establishment of *Jana Shikshan Nilayams* (JSN's) for clusters of 4-5 villages, the total population of which may be about 5,000. JSN's will provide the programmes of adult education and nonformal education and will be housed either in the local school building, or the building for the lowest level unit of local self government (*Panchayat Ghar*), or any other community centre. It will provide library reading-room facilities, a forum for community group discussions and cultural activities, and may in some cases also provide a TV set for the community.

ii. The provision of a forum for functionaries of development departments at village level, village health guides, community workers, village development workers (*Gram Sevak*), etc. All development programmes will be expected to utilize the JSN's for their extension activities and as a forum for interaction.

iii. Through holding community group discussions (*Charchas Mandal*), help in inculcating an awareness of national goals such as conservation of the environment, family planning, national integration, development of cultural creativity etc.

The JSN will be responsible for:

a. providing library and reading-room facilities;

b. creating awareness of issues concerning the working and living conditions of village people, through discussion, drama, role play, puppetry and extension lectures;

c. organizing special training programmes to develop income-generating activities for deprived sections of the community such as women, farmers with small-holdings, landless agricultural labourers, rural artisans etc.;

d. creating a learning environment by organizing recreational, cultural and sports activities; and

e. promoting the use of mass media as a source of information.

The person in charge of the JSN is selected by the Village Education Committee from amongst outstanding local instructors or other outstanding community workers who have the organizing ability and qualities of leadership necessary for the job.

As can be seen from the functions and activities outlined above, the intention behind establishing JSN's throughout the country is to institutionalize PL and CE. In so doing, an effort has been made to utilize the experiences of several similar attempts made in the past by various central and state government departments, non-governmental agencies and private, local organizations. In this context, it may be stated that the JSN includes programmes which were formerly organized as part of farmers' training programmes, rural radio forums, youth clubs, mobile and village library systems, rural reading rooms, etc. New vistas of communication have been opened up for human development through the recent advances made in communication technology, which has led to acceptance of the principle of learning through literacy using a variety of methods.

References

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2. *Jana Shikshan Nilayam (A Scheme)*. New Delhi: Ministry of Human Resource Development, Department of Education, March 1988.

Glossary of Terms

Note: This Glossary relies largely on the *Terminology of Adult Education* prepared for the International Bureau of Education in English, French and Spanish by Colin Titmus, Paz Buttedahl, Diana Ironside and Paul Lengrand. Paris: Unesco/IBE, 1979.

Action groups: Educational strategy of community development programmes which follow the "popular education" approach. They promote a more democratic participation by the people in deciding their own destiny, and transforming economic, social, and political aspects of society in favour of the poor and marginal population.

Animation, as used in the field of education, social work and community development, is an approach characterized essentially by the concern to bring problems into the open, and cause them to be dealt with by the interested parties themselves through a process of critical reflection on the nature of their needs and the means and action required to satisfy them.

Animator: A person in the field of education, social work or community development who works to stimulate the people to be aware of their own needs as a group, so that they define the nature of the needs, determine the means to satisfy them, and act to do so.

Award: A general term for a qualification issued by an examining or validating body.

Basic education: Segment of the lifelong education process aimed at the acquisition of primary knowledge and skills necessary to life in society.

Community development: The primary objective of community development is to start up and to guide a movement which will encourage people of a given locality to get together and organize themselves to create, maintain, reinforce and qualitatively transform their economic, political, social and cultural life.

Competence or *competency:* The ability to perform a particular activity to a prescribed standard.

Consciousness/awareness raising: Educational process to enable people living in conditions of extreme deprivation to achieve freedom and mastery over their own destiny. It attempts to develop consciousness and a critical appreciation of one's situation in order that one may act to transform it.

Correspondence courses: Distance education courses in which the teaching-learning process occurs through the exchange of written or tape-recorded information, using the postal service.

The *Curriculum* consists of all the experiences for learning which are planned and organized by a given educational programme in which educational policy decisions are put into practice. The main elements of this process are the aims and objectives, the planned and guided learning experiences and intended learning outcomes, teaching-learning methods and materials and evaluation.

Evaluation is a process of collecting, analyzing and interpreting evidence in order to judge the worth of an entity for various types of decision-making.

Extension education: Instructional activities by which the resources of an educational institution or community agency are extended to serve a widely diversified clientele within its region.

Facilitator: A leader who is skilled in helping a learner or group of learners to specify their own learning objectives and to select the strategies by which to reach them.

Folk and traditional media: Popular activities such as theatre, puppet shows, dances, songs, sports, games, etc. of a given culture organized on a nonformal basis, usually for the purpose of entertainment, and which can be fully utilized as motivational or instructional media in literacy, post-literacy and continuing education.

Formal education: The structured, chronologically ordered education provided in primary and secondary schools, in universities and specialized courses of full-time general, technical and higher education.

Grassroots level personnel: Literacy, post-literacy and continuing education workers directly responsible for the teaching-learning process, community involvement and organization and coordination activities at the local level.

Learning strategies: General procedures and activities specially designed to attain the objectives of learners.

Lifelong education: A comprehensive concept which includes formal, nonformal and informal learning extended throughout the life span of an individual to attain the fullest possible development in personal, social and professional life. It seeks to view education in its totality and includes learning that occurs at home, school, in the community and work place and through mass media and other situations and structures for acquiring and enhancing enlightenment.

Middle level personnel: Functionaries working at the provincial, state or district level (depending on the administrative structure of the country), as planners, managers, coordinators and trainers.

Modules: Separate or self-contained parts of an educational or training programme designed as a series. Modules may lead to a certain level of qualification or attainment, and may be grouped as a range of options.

Needs assessment: A systematic method of determining the development needs felt in a particular community.

Occupation: A group of related skills, tasks or activities which are common to a range of jobs and which are grouped together under a title for the purpose of identification and classification.

Parallel programmes: Literacy, post-literacy and continuing education programmes of a general and vocational nature delivered through institutions and settings which are run in a way similar to the formal system with the requisite equivalence at the basic, secondary and/or higher levels.

Participation: Local involvement in the implementation of a development activity. The degree of involvement ranges from community sensitization and consultation to active responsibility in decision-making and autonomy in controlling resources and institutions.

Popular education: An educational movement predominant in Latin America which emphasizes that the formal, non-formal and informal systems of adult education reinforce and maintain the status quo and the social order in place. In contrast, popular education for the public (the "masses") advocates and gives adults the capacity for social and political change. The aim of such education is the transfer of power from dominant groups to the poor and disenfranchized. Hence, Popular Education aspires to promote functional and coherent organizations where decision-making is participatory, to forge linkages across and within social classes, to gain political and economic power and to transform social structures and redistribute resources more equitably.

Post-literacy: An integrating learning process to assist literates to retain, improve and apply their knowledge, attitudes and skills for the satisfaction of their basic needs, and to permit them to continue education through a self-directed process for the improvement of their personal and social quality of life.

Practitioner: Generic term used to cover those literacy, post-literacy and continuing education functionaries carrying out concrete actions at learning centres or in institutions or structures close to that level.

Printed media or print-media: All reading material such as textbooks, booklets, leaflets, bulletins, complementary reading material, extension literature, newspapers, wall-newspapers, posters, etc. which is paper-based.

Progression: Building on existing competences, either to broaden their range, to bring them up to date or to extend them to a higher level.

Radiophonic schools: Literacy and adult education programmes based on broadcast lessons/information via radio.

Rural press: Generic term which covers all written communication meant to give general information to a large public, of which neo-literates constitute the core.

Self-directed learning: A process by which an individual initiates and takes primary responsibility for planning, conducting and evaluating his own learning projects. It may take place with the help of persons such as teachers, tutors or friends, or of an institution.

Skill: Facility gained by knowledge and/or practice.

Small media: The use of audio and video cassettes, tape-slide presentations, films, etc. as opposed to radio and TV, which constitute mass media and are not easily managed by individual or community learners.

Syllabus: A concise written description of the subject matter of a course or examination.

Task: An element or combination of elements of work, by means of which a specific result is achieved.

Training: The provision of learning experiences allowing the development of specified competences.

Ujamaa: Swahili word for "villagization". In Tanzania ujamaa villages are intended to be socialist organizations created by the people, and governed by those who live and work in them. Hence, an ujamaa village is a voluntary association of people who decide of their own free will to live together and work together for their common good.

Vocational education/training: The systematic development of knowledge, attitudes and skills required by an individual in order to perform an employment task or tasks.

Acronyms and Abbreviations

ACCU
Asian Cultural Centre for Unesco (Japan)

ACPO
Acción Cultural Popular: Popular Culture Action Programme (Colombia)

ASFEC
Arab States Fundamental Education Centre (now Regional Centre for Adult Education) (Egypt)

BREDA
Bureau Régional (de l'Unesco) pour l'Education en Afrique: Unesco Regional Office for Education in Africa

CAFAM
Caja de Compensación Familiar: Family Subsidy Fund (Colombia)

CE
Continuing Education

CESAP
Centro al Servicio de la Acción Popular: Centre of Service to Popular Action (Venezuela)

CREFAL
Centro Regional de Educación Fundamental para América Latina: Regional Centre of Adult Education and Functional Literacy for Latin America (Mexico)

CSTC
Community Skills Training Centre (Ethiopia)

DNAFLA
Direction Nationale de l'Alphabétisation Fonctionnelle et de la Linguistique Appliquée: National Directorate of Functional Literacy and Applied Linguistics (Mali)

EOLP
Employment-Oriented Learning Programme (Indonesia)

ERBOL
(Coordinación) de Escuelas Radiofónicas de Bolivia: Radiophonic Schools Organization of Bolivia

FCP
Fondo de Capacitación Popular: Popular Training Fund (Colombia)

FDC
Folk Development College (Tanzania)

FEP
Foyer d'Education Permanente: Lifelong Education Centre (Niger)

FULFIL
Follow-Up Literature for Individual Learners (Jamaica)

HEART
Human Employment and Resource Training (Jamaica)

IIEP
International Institute for Educational Planning, (Paris, France)

IMDEC
Instituto Mexicano de Desarrollo Comunitario: Mexican Institute for Community Development

INADES
Institut Africain pour le Développement Economique et Social: African Institute for Economic and Social Development (Côte d'Ivoire)

INCE
Instituto Nacional de Cooperación Educativa: National Institute of Educational Cooperation (Venezuela)

JAMAL
Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy

LS
Learning Strategy

MOBRAL
Movimento Brasileiro de Alfabetização: Brazilian Literacy Movement

NCI
National Correspondence Institute (Tanzania)

OREALC
Oficina Regional de Educación para América Latina y el Caribe: (Unesco) Regional Office for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean

PEI
Programa de Educaçao Integrada: Integrated Education Programme (Brazil)

PENMAS
PENdidikan dikMAS: Department of Community Education (Indonesia)

PES
Programa de Educação Communitária para a Saude: Community Health Programme (Brazil)

PETRA
Programa de Educaçao Comunitária para o Trabalho: Community Education for Work Programme (Brazil)

PIPMO
Programa Intensivo de Preparação Mão de Obra: Programme for Intensive Manpower Preparation (Brazil)

PL
Post-Literacy

PRODAC
Programa Diversificado de Ação Comunitária: Diversified Community Action Programme (Brazil)

ROAP
(Unesco) Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific (now PROAP-Unesco Principal Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific)

SENA
Servicio Nacional de Aprentizaje: National Training Programme (Colombia)

SENAC
Serviço National de Aprentizagem Comercial: National Commercial Training Service (Brazil)

SENAI
Serviço National de Aprentizagem Industrial: National Industrial Training Service (Brazil)

SENALEP
Servicio Nacional de Alfabetización y Educación Popular: National Service of Literacy and Popular Education (Bolivia)

SIL
Summer Institute of Linguistics

SRC
State Resource Centre (India)

TOTAL
Training of Teachers of Adult Learners (Jamaica)

UIE
Unesco Institute for Education (Hamburg, Federal Republic of Germany)

UNEDBAS
Unesco Regional Office for Education in the Arab States

UNESCO
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

WFP
World Food Programme (United Nations)